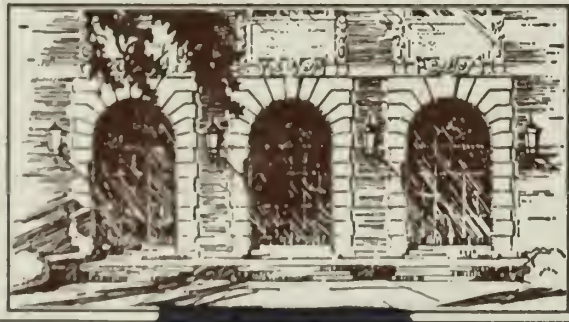


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International Boundary Study

NO.41 - NOVEMBER 23, 1964

GREECE-TURKEY BOUNDARY



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

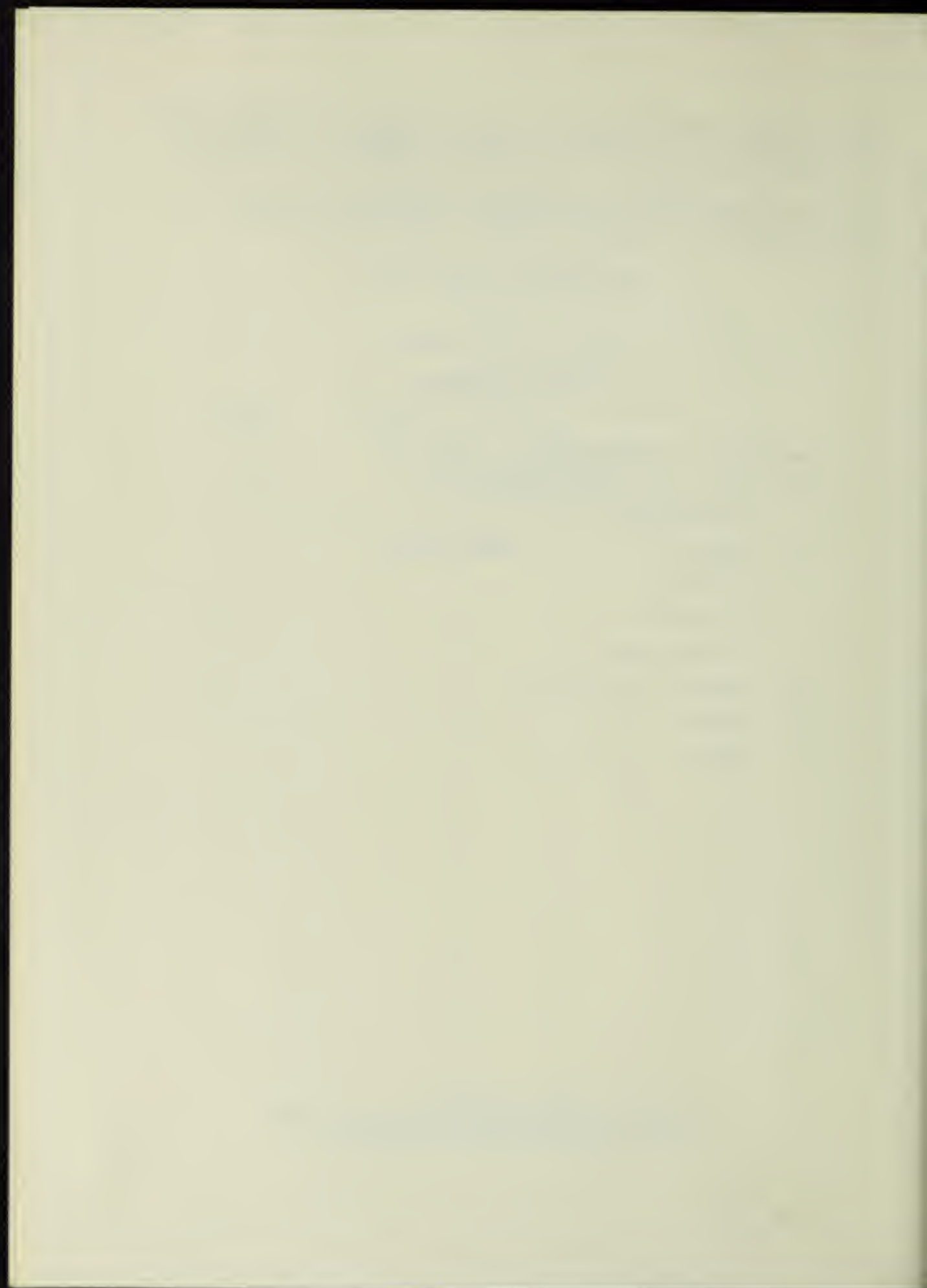
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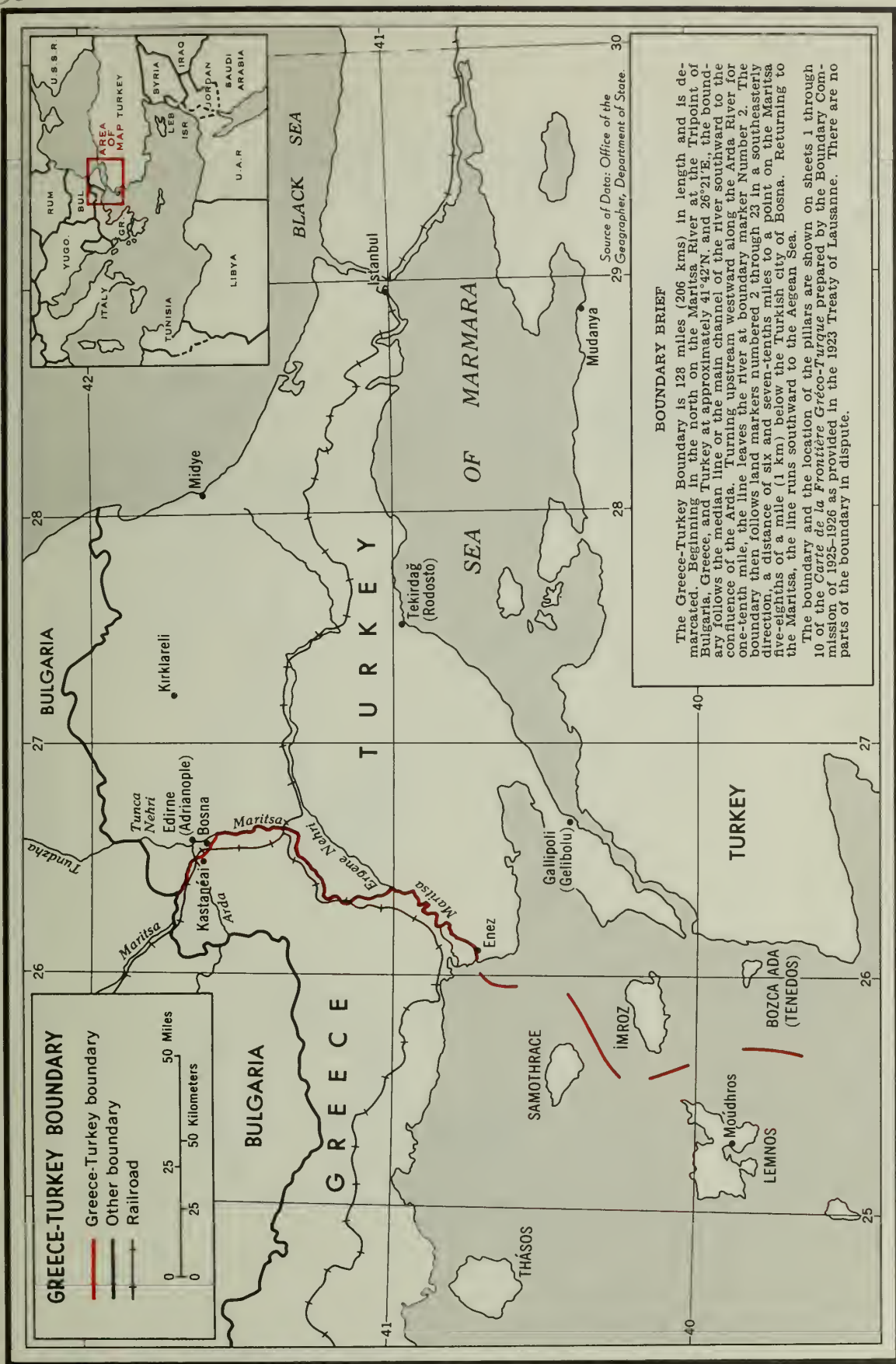
Greece - Turkey Boundary

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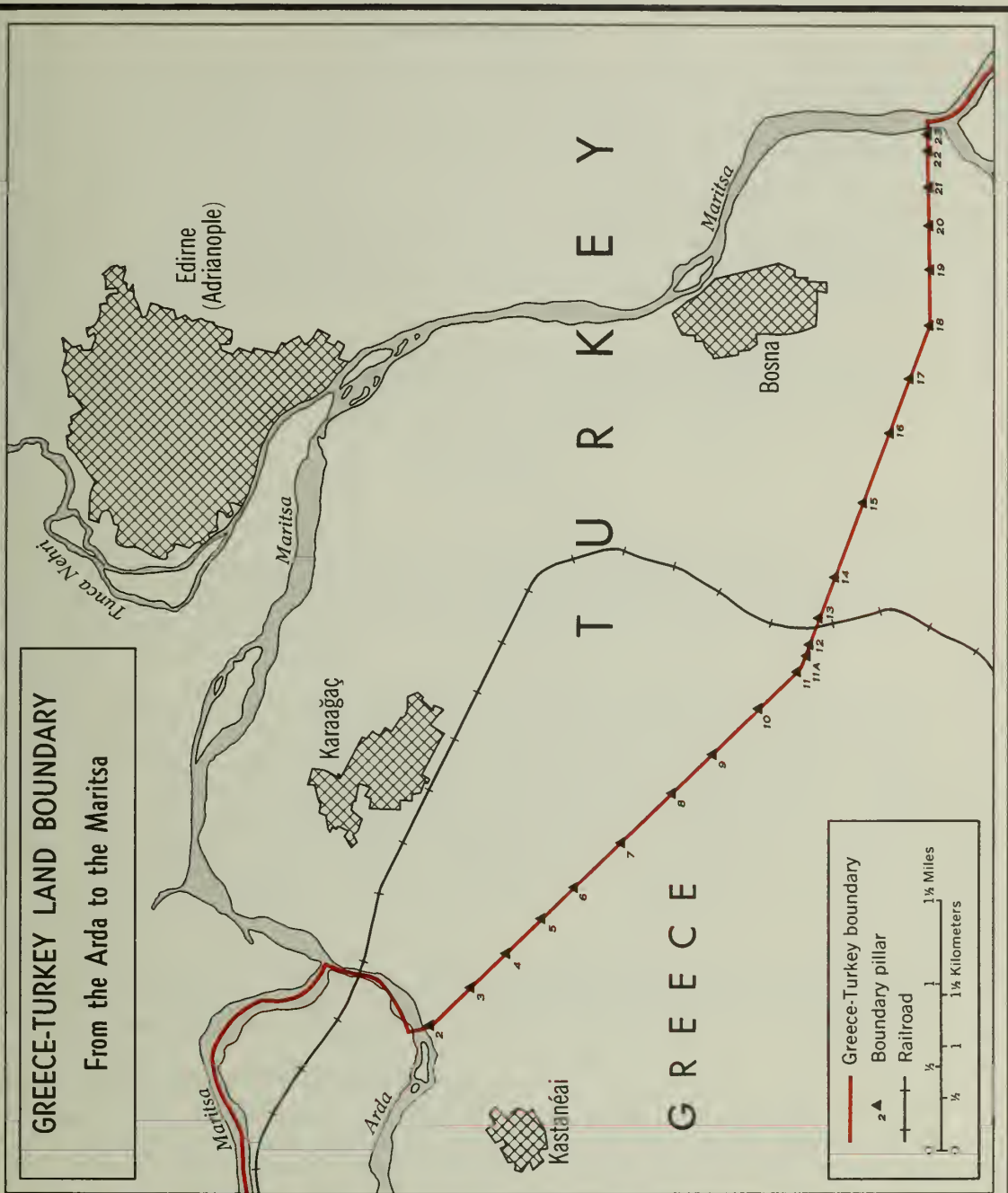






GREECE-TURKEY LAND BOUNDARY

From the Arda to the Maritsa





GREECE - TURKEY BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Greece - Turkey Boundary is 128 miles (206 kms) in length and is demarcated.¹ Beginning in the north on the Maritsa River at the Tripoint of Bulgaria, Greece, and Turkey at approximately 41°42' N. and 26°21' E., the boundary follows the median line of the river or the main channel southward to the confluence of the Arda. Turning upstream westward along the Arda River for six-tenths of a mile, the line leaves the river at boundary marker No. 2. The boundary then follows land markers numbered 2 through 23 in a southeasterly direction, a distance of 6.7 miles to a point on the Maritsa five-eighths of a mile (1 km) below the Turkish town of Bosna. Returning to the Maritsa, the line runs southward to the Aegean Sea.

The boundary and the location of the pillars are shown on sheets 1 through 10 of the Carte de la Frontiere Gréco-Turque prepared by the Boundary Commission of 1925-1926 as provided in the 1923 Treaty of Lausanne. There are no parts of the boundary in dispute.

II. BACKGROUND

A. History

Few boundary regions have been fought over more arduously or for so long as the one separating Greece from Turkey. Through history many peoples have struggled to control this general area, a key landbridge connecting Europe and Asia and crossing the double narrows of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus.

Edirne (Adrianople), a focal point on the boundary, is second only to Istanbul as a key city on the Eurasian landbridge. Recognizing its strategic importance, the Romans founded the city of Hadrianopolis on a knoll at the confluence of three streams (Arda, Maritsa, and the Tunca) the valleys of which provide easy land routes in all directions. From Hadrianopolis, Rome protected the seaway through the Straits from land enemies of the eastern and central European plains. To Turkey and the Muslim World, the city was a symbol of power and prestige. A century before the Turkish conquest of Constantinople in 1453, Adrianople became the capital of the Ottomans.

The fortunes of the Ottoman Empire waxed and waned in the next four centuries, and in the years immediately preceding and following World War I, Turkey's European border was convulsed by a series of wars and altered in a sequence of treaties.

The Balkan Wars and the Great War

In May 1913, after the First Balkan War (Treaty of London), the Turkish boundary in Europe extended from Midye on the Black Sea in a straight line to Enez (Enos) on the Aegean. After the Second Balkan War

¹ Measured in the Office of the Geographer on the official 1:50,000 maps of the Boundary Commission.

(Treaty of Constantinople) the line was pushed to the Maritsa River.² With the signing of the Mudros Armistice on October 30, 1918, the Ottoman Empire's participation in World War I ended, Allies occupied Istanbul and the Straits and Cilicia. Although the Paris Peace Conference convened in January 1919, the Allies postponed Near Eastern Questions because they were busy with European peace terms. Finally, on August 10, 1920 the Treaty of Sèvres was signed by the Ottoman Government. Sèvres together with the simultaneous Tripartite Agreement among France, Great Britain, and Italy divided Asia Minor into spheres of influence. Although the Treaty was later nullified, some of its terms served as a model for the final Treaty of Lausanne, and therefore are worth noting:

1. Constantinople was all that was to be left of European Turkey.
2. The Straits were to be internationalized.
3. Navigation in the Straits was to be open both in peace and in war to the merchant vessels and warships, including aircraft, of all nations.
4. Smyrna and its hinterland was to be occupied by Greece for five years.

Greek-Turkish War (1919-1922)

In the meantime, on May 15, 1919, the Greek Army under cover of British, French and American warships, occupied Izmir (Smyrna) and the surrounding countryside. The Greek forces whose landing, it was announced, was to subdue unruly Turkish irregulars and to protect the substantial Greek population in the district, openly annexed large portions of Western Anatolia beyond the limits conceded by the Allies. The arrival of Greek troops was accompanied by excesses by both sides. The Turks feared that the Greeks intended to remain in Anatolia, although occupation was sanctioned by the Allies as a temporary measure only. Allied occupation of Istanbul (Constantinople) and loss of the remainder of European Turkey, combined with the Greek occupation of Anatolia sparked the fires of national defense. A powerful leader, Mustafa Kemal (later Ataturk), led the Turks in three years of bitter war which culminated in the final ejection of the Greek army and the birth of a new and defiant Turkish state.

The armistice signed at Mudania on October 11, 1922, which later formed the basis of the final Peace Treaty at Lausanne, has been interpreted as an Allied surrender to the demands of the Kemalists. It was agreed:

1. To evacuate the Greeks immediately from Eastern Thrace.
2. To restore Thrace as far as the Maritsa River to Turkey.

² At this time, the boundary line separated Turkey and Bulgaria.

Turkey thus recovered a substantial foothold in Europe, in spite of Allied attempt to confine her to Asia Minor and to a conditional possession of Istanbul. Greek aspirations to Izmir (Smyrna) and Eastern Thrace were rejected by the Allies, and were abandoned by the Greeks themselves, who signed the Mudania Armistice three days later on October 14, 1922.

The Treaty of Lausanne

The ending of hostilities by the temporary settlement of Mudania led to the Lausanne Conference on November 20, 1922. Territorial matters were among the most important issues of the Conference. Most of the first phase discussions related to delimitation of the Greek-Turkish frontier. Although the status quo of Mudania, conceding Eastern Thrace to the Maritsa River was maintained, Turkish demands for territory on the right bank in Western Thrace was the subject of considerable contention. Negotiations dragged on for many months until the Treaty of Peace was finally signed at Lausanne on July 24, 1923.

Delimitation of the Greek-Turkish frontier gave Turkey the whole of Eastern Thrace as far west as the Maritsa River. Opposite Edirne (Adrianople), Turkey received a bridge-head containing a section of the railway on the western bank of the Maritsa in satisfaction of her reparation claims against Greece.³

To the newly-created Turkish Republic whose orientation included abolition of Ottoman custom and practice in favor of acceptance of Europeanness and modernism, the foothold in Europe was of utmost importance. Its tenacity between 1918 and 1923 ensured that Turkey would not be confined to Asia Minor.

B. Geography

The Greek-Turkish boundary region is located in the southeastern extremity of the Balkan Peninsula. Chief physiographic features of the region include the Balkan Mountains in the northwest and the Rhodope Mountains (massif) in the southwest. Between the two mountain ranges, in Bulgaria, is the Rumelian Basin through which the Maritsa River flows. Beyond the boundary in the northeast is the low-lying Istranca mountain range.

The major part of the frontier area is low lying land. Most of the 9,000 square miles of European Turkey, about 3 percent of the total area of Turkey, extending from the Aegean to the Black Sea is relatively fertile land. Several routes which cross the tangled ranges of the Balkans converge at Edirne (Adrianople). From there the main lines of communication run southeasterly through ridge and valley country south of the Istranca mountains toward Istanbul and the Bosphorus. The land route to the Dardanelles has been of secondary importance except when the Bosphorus crossing has been debarred. However, the route from the Dardanelles into Macedonia along the north shore of the Aegean Sea has figured prominently as a highway for armies.

³ The Treaty also confirmed Turkish sovereignty of the Aegean Islands of Imbros and Tenedos (Article 14), and Greek sovereignty of Lemnos, Samothrace, Mytelene, Chios, Samos, and Nikaria (Article 12), as well as Italian sovereignty over the Dodecanese Islands and Castellorizo (Article 15). In 1947 they were transferred to Greece in the Treaty of Paris (Article 14).

The Maritsa (Greek, Évros) River from Edirne southward has a slight fall. Over a distance of 90 miles from its highest elevation to the Aegean it falls about 130 feet. The valley is broad and open for the entire course, and is subject to flooding. On the Greek side of the boundary, the west bank from Edirne to the mouth is marshy practically over the whole distance. The east bank is slightly higher and firmer, as far as the confluence of the Ergene River where it becomes marshy. About 21 miles before reaching the Aegean, the river divides into two channels; the eastern or main channel is the boundary line to the sea at Enez (Enos). Between the western channel in Greek territory and the main channel is marshland forming the Maritsa Delta. In winter and spring it is impassable. In summer the delta is used as meadowland and can be traversed. The river is navigable for flat-bottomed boats to Edirne at all seasons and for large barges from October to June. The average depth of the river is 7-10 feet and the rate of the current is about 2 miles per hour in summer. There are no rapids, and no fords except in a very dry season.

The boundary region, especially that facing the Aegean Sea, is typically Mediterranean in climate. The Balkan Mountains in the north, standing as a barrier between the northerly winds of the European continent and the warmer weather from the Mediterranean and the south, affect the nature of the climate. During the summer months the plains area on the south side, under the shadow of the Balkan Mountains from which warm and dry air currents descend after depositing much of their moisture on the northern slopes, enjoys a warm sub-tropical climate.

The cold, dry conditions which prevail on the Russian steppes in the winter months frequently extend to the Balkan Peninsula, accounting for the moderate rainfall and low temperature then experienced. Average monthly precipitation during the winter rainy season is between 3 and 4 inches while that of the dry summer months does not exceed 2 inches. Temperature ranges between the mean minimum of 36° in January to the mean maximum of 86° in July or August.

C. Ethnography

The human landscape on the Greek-Turkish frontier area has had marked changes. Prior to World War I, the area was almost minutely divided by race and creed. Turk, Greek, Bulgar, Armenian, Jew, Serb, and Albanian formed an ethnic mosaic with distinctions and separateness defined in an overall pattern that was clearly discernible. The generic term "Balkanization" aptly describes the political and human geography of the region at that time.

Population figures in the later Ottoman years vary considerably. However, one can accept a 1912 estimate of the relative proportion of ethnic groupings in Eastern Thrace (i.e., the area east of the Maritsa River to the Sea of Marmara); two-thirds of the population were Turks and one-fourth were Greeks. In the towns, however, Turks formed a little more than one-third of the population, while Greeks were a larger proportion, constituting more than 50 percent of the inhabitants of some of the maritime towns. Armenians lived principally in the larger cities -- perhaps 200,000 in Istanbul (Constantinople), 9,000 at Adrianople, and 1,000 to 2,000 at Tekirdag (Rodosto), Gallipoli, and Kırklareli (Kirk Kilisse).

At the outbreak of the First Balkan War (1912-13) about 60,000 Bulgarians were driven out of Eastern Thrace, although a few were allowed to remain in Adrianople and Kirkklareli. In addition, about 60,000 of the Greek population, which may have numbered 200,000 in 1912, had emigrated west of the Maritsa by August 1914.

The void caused by emigration became partially filled by immigration of Turks, Pomaks, and other Muslims from Bulgaria, Serbian Macedonia, Albania, and Greece, all territories formerly part of Ottoman Turkey. This two-way movement of population across the boundary was well under way before World War I, and before Turkish nationalists under Mustafa Kemal and the new Turkish Republic avowed a vigorous policy of Turkification including an aggressive effort to erase all Ottoman patterns.

Striking demographic changes took place in the years immediately following World War I. A direct result of the Greek defeat following occupation of Izmir (Smyrna) and the surrounding countryside in 1919, was the exclusion of all Greeks from Eastern Thrace (excepting Constantinople) east of the Maritsa. This provision was included in the Greek-Turkish Armistice signed at Mudania in October 1922 and later confirmed in the treaty of Lausanne.

Today nearly all trace of the ethnographic mosaic of Ottoman times is erased. On the Turkish side of the boundary, the population, based on the census estimate of 1960, is 2,284,621. The area is essentially homogeneous, consisting of Turks, but including Pomaks who can be described as Turkified Muslims of Bulgarian extraction. The Greek population has been reduced to about 60,000 Turkish citizens and about 5,000 Greek citizens living in Istanbul.

On the Greek side of the boundary frontier, the population estimate of Western Thrace totals 356,555 as of the 1960 census. This figure includes about 95,000 Muslims, of whom Turks number about 65,000 and Pomaks about 25,000.

III. ANALYSIS OF THE BOUNDARY

The Greece-Turkey boundary begins in the north on the Maritsa River at the tripoint with Bulgaria, at approximately 41°42' North latitude and 26°21' East longitude. Boundary pillars are shown on sheets 1 through 10 of the Carte de la Frontière Gréco-Turque prepared by the official International Boundary Commission. Boundary marker No. 1 is situated on the southern extremity of island "A" of the Kavak island group. Its location was determined in relation to the distance between terminal marker No. 320 of the Bulgaria-Turkey (demarcated) boundary on the northern shore of the Maritsa and boundary marker 320 A (restored by the boundary commission) on the southern or Greek side of the river. The actual tripoint in the river is 196.9 feet south of marker No. 1. Thence from marker No. 1 the boundary follows the median line either of the river or of the main channel southward a distance of 9.3 miles to its confluence with the Arda River, where it turns westward upstream on the Arda for .6 mile at which point the boundary leaves the river.

The boundary then follows intervisible landmarks numbered 2 through 23 in a southeasterly direction a distance of 6.7 miles to a point on the Maritsa five-eighths of a mile below the Turkish town of Bosna. To assure intervisibility of the landmarks, an additional pillar numbered 11A has been placed between markers numbered 11 and 12 where the boundary turns slightly eastward.

Returning to the median of the Maritsa, or of its principal channel, the boundary continues southward past islands on the west or Greek side and others to the east or Turkish side of the boundary a distance of 19.3 miles to boundary marker No. 24 on the northern end of an island designated "Q." Thence the boundary line extends a distance of 800.5 feet to Marker No. 25 near the center, thence a distance of 1,804 feet to marker No. 26 on the southwestern extremity of island "Q." Between markers No. 24 and 25 a bridge crossing connects a roadway on both sides of the international boundary; 1.3 miles north of island "Q," a railroad bridge crosses the international boundary.

Continuing in the river from marker No. 26, the boundary extends southward a distance of 47.2 miles to the confluence of the Ergene River. Thence the boundary follows the median of the Maritsa, a distance of 24.2 miles at which point the river divides into a western and eastern branch, the boundary following the eastern, principal branch southward a distance of 21.1 miles to the Aegean Sea.

IV. TREATIES

The treaty relating directly to the present Greece - Turkey boundary is the Treaty of Lausanne (1923) which delimited the boundary and provided for an international boundary commission to demarcate the boundary. The Treaty of Sèvres (1920), later nullified, is included as background reference.

- A. Treaty of Sèvres between Turkey and various Allied Powers, signed at Sèvres, August 10, 1920; The Treaties of Peace 1919-1923, Vol. II, Carnegie Endowment, New York, 1924.

Article 27, Section I (2) defines the frontier with Greece.

This treaty was signed by the Ottoman Government of Constantinople which subsequently collapsed. The new Turkish Government at Ankara refused to acknowledge the treaty.

- B. Treaty of Lausanne between Turkey and various Allied powers, signed at Lausanne, July 24, 1923. Treaty Series No. 16, London, 1923.

Article 2, (2) delimites the boundary between Turkey and Greece.

Articles 5 through 11 provide for the composition of the international boundary commission and for rules, definitions and responsibilities of the commission.

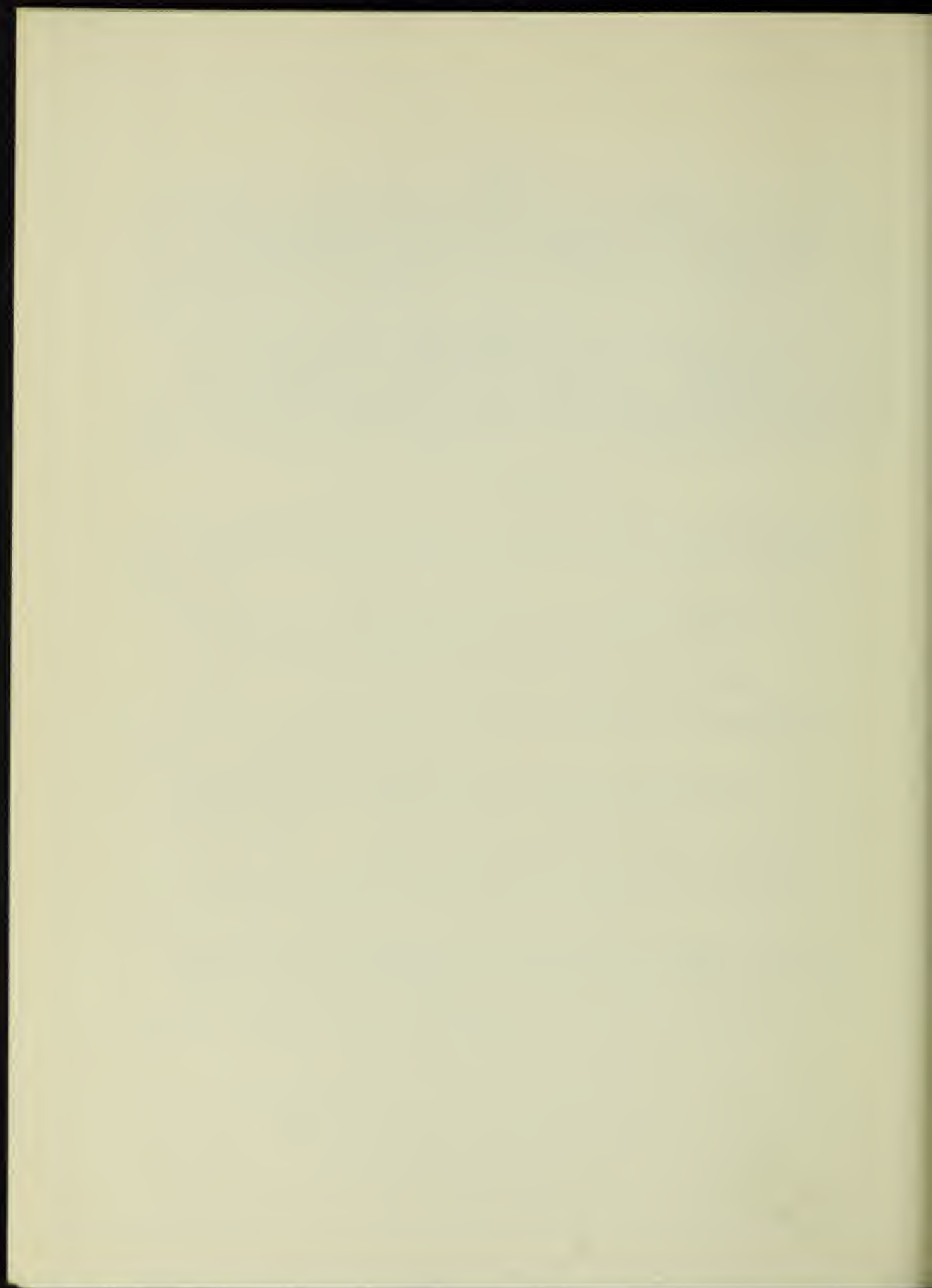
- C. Commission de Délimitation de la Frontière Gréco-Turque. Protocole des Conclusions de la Commission, signed at Athens, November 3, 1926.

The conclusions of the mixed boundary commission in accordance with the mandate of the Treaty of Lausanne.

V. SUMMARY

The Greece - Turkey Boundary is 128 miles long and is demarcated. Other than a distance of 6.7 miles of land boundary delimiting a small enclave west of the Maritsa River opposite Edirne (Adrianople), the entire boundary follows rivers. No active disputes on the boundary are known to exist.

Location of the boundary markers are shown on Sheets 1 through 10 of the Carte de la Frontière Gréco-Turque 1:50,000 prepared by the Boundary Commission. For a large-scale depiction of the boundary, this series is recommended. An accurate medium-scale representation of the boundary is found on Army Map Service 1:250,000 scale (Series K502) sheets NK 35-8 and NK 35-11. A small-scale depiction of the boundary on a single sheet is found on Army Map Service 1:1,000,000 scale (Series 1301) Sheet NK-35.



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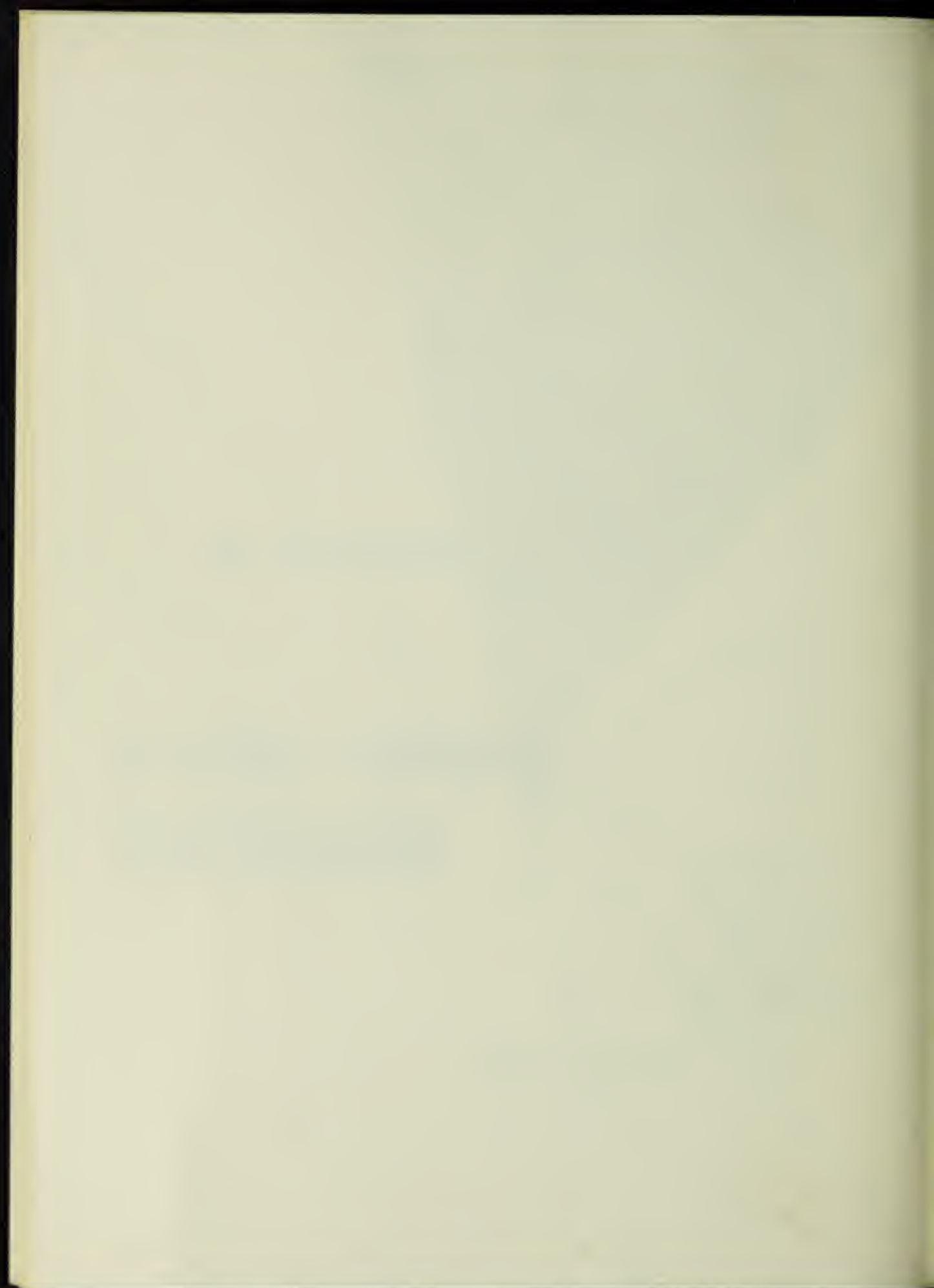
International Boundary Study

NO.42 - NOVEMBER 30, 1964

BURMA-CHINA BOUNDARY



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No. 42

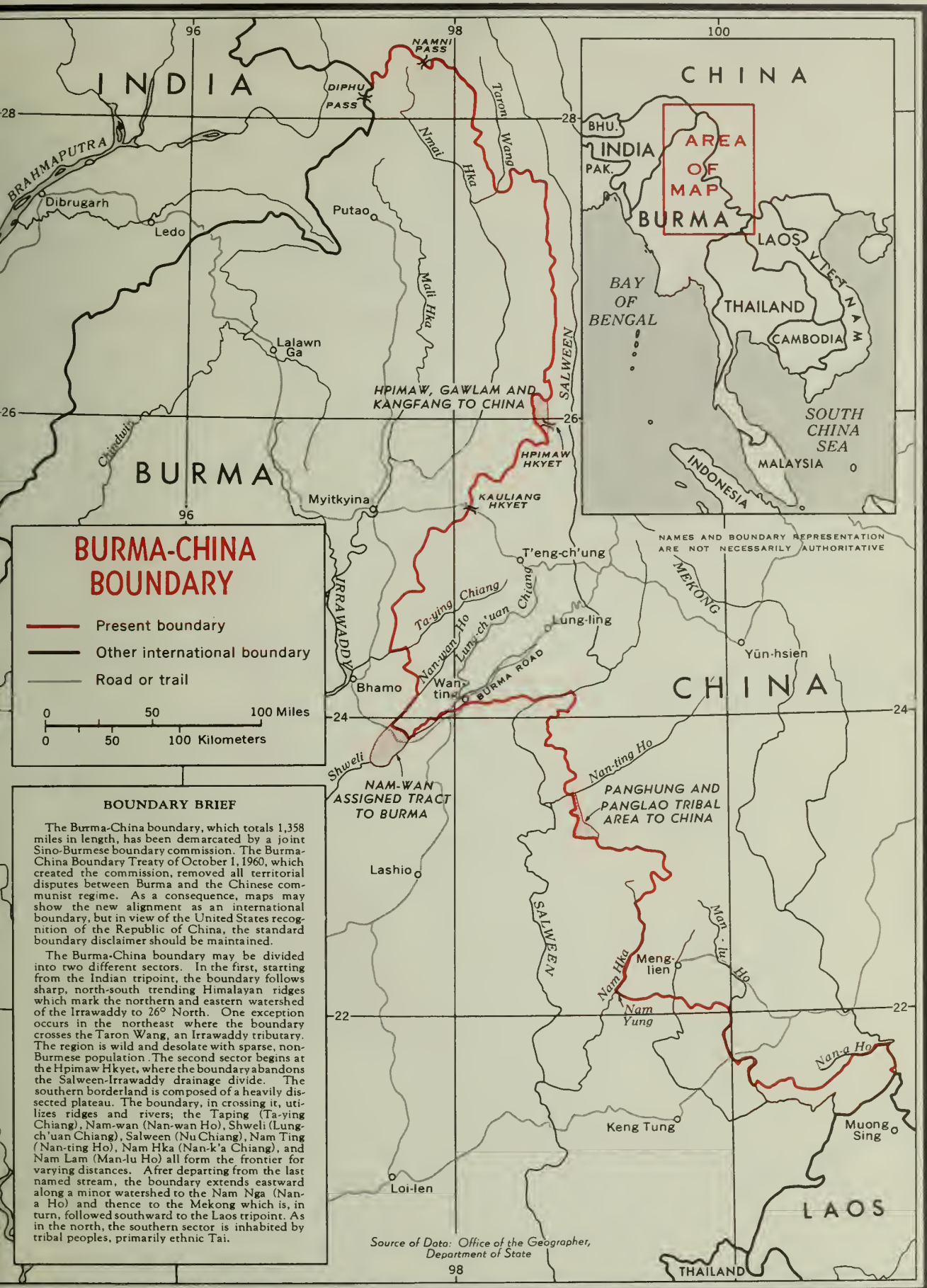
Burma - China Boundary

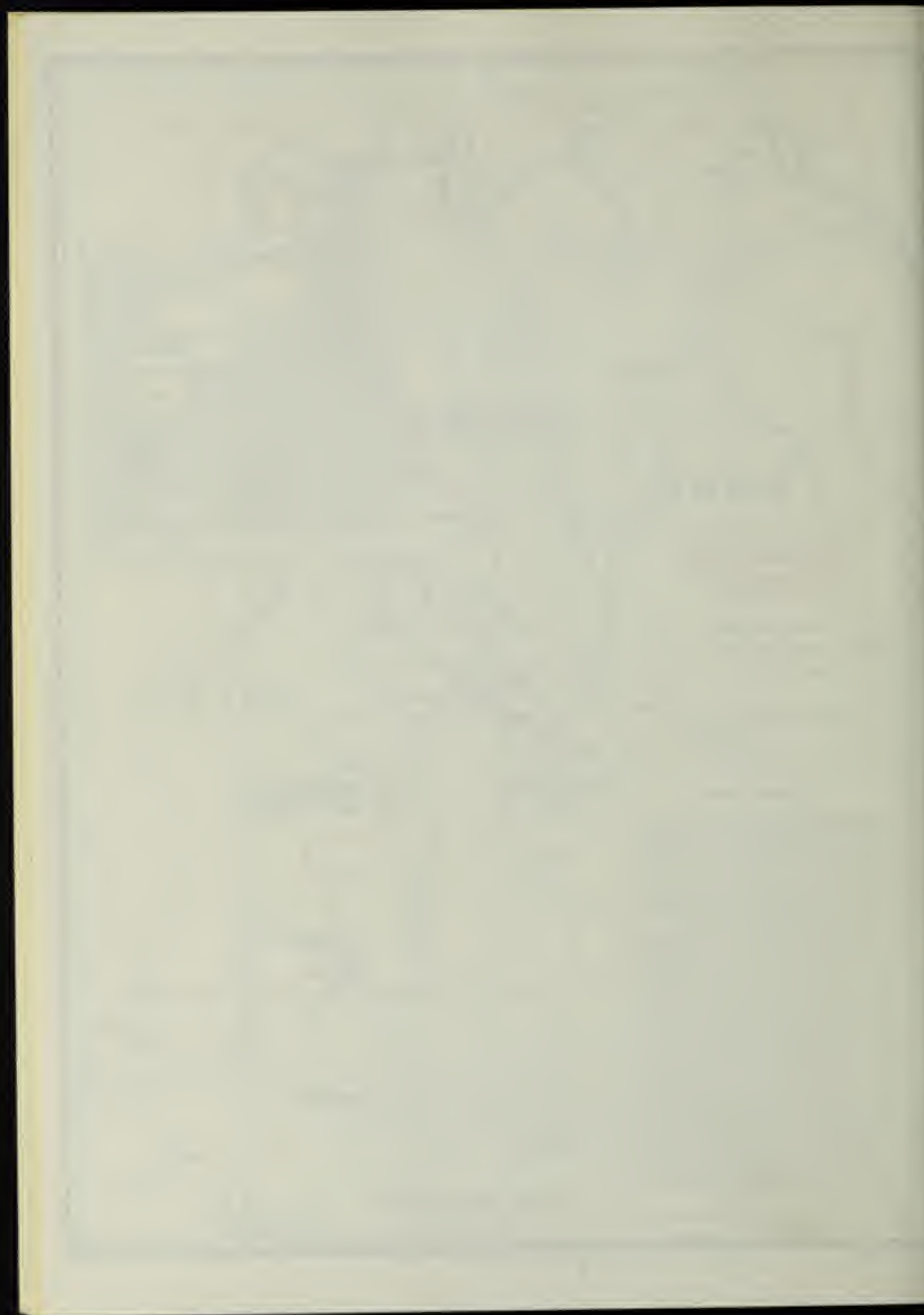
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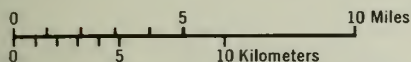




BURMA-CHINA BOUNDARY

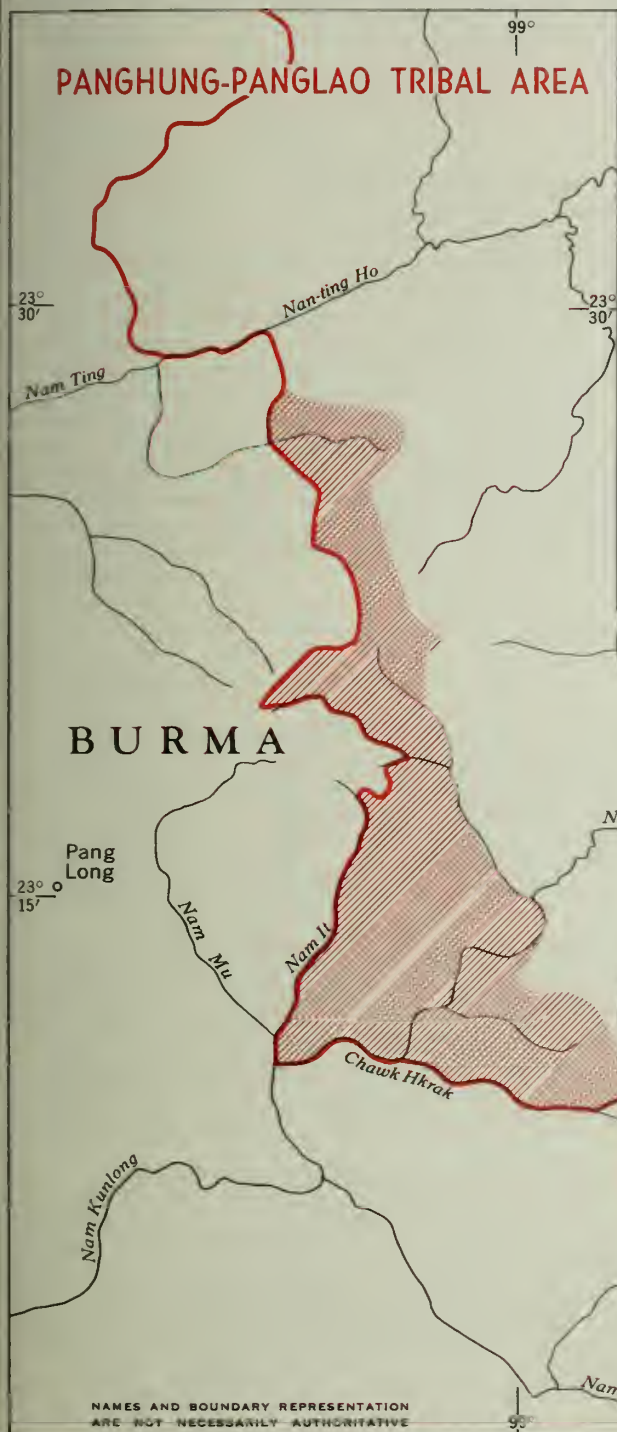
— Present boundary

 Area ceded to China, 1960



Source of Data: Office of the Geographer, Department of State

PANGHUNG-PANGLAO TRIBAL AREA



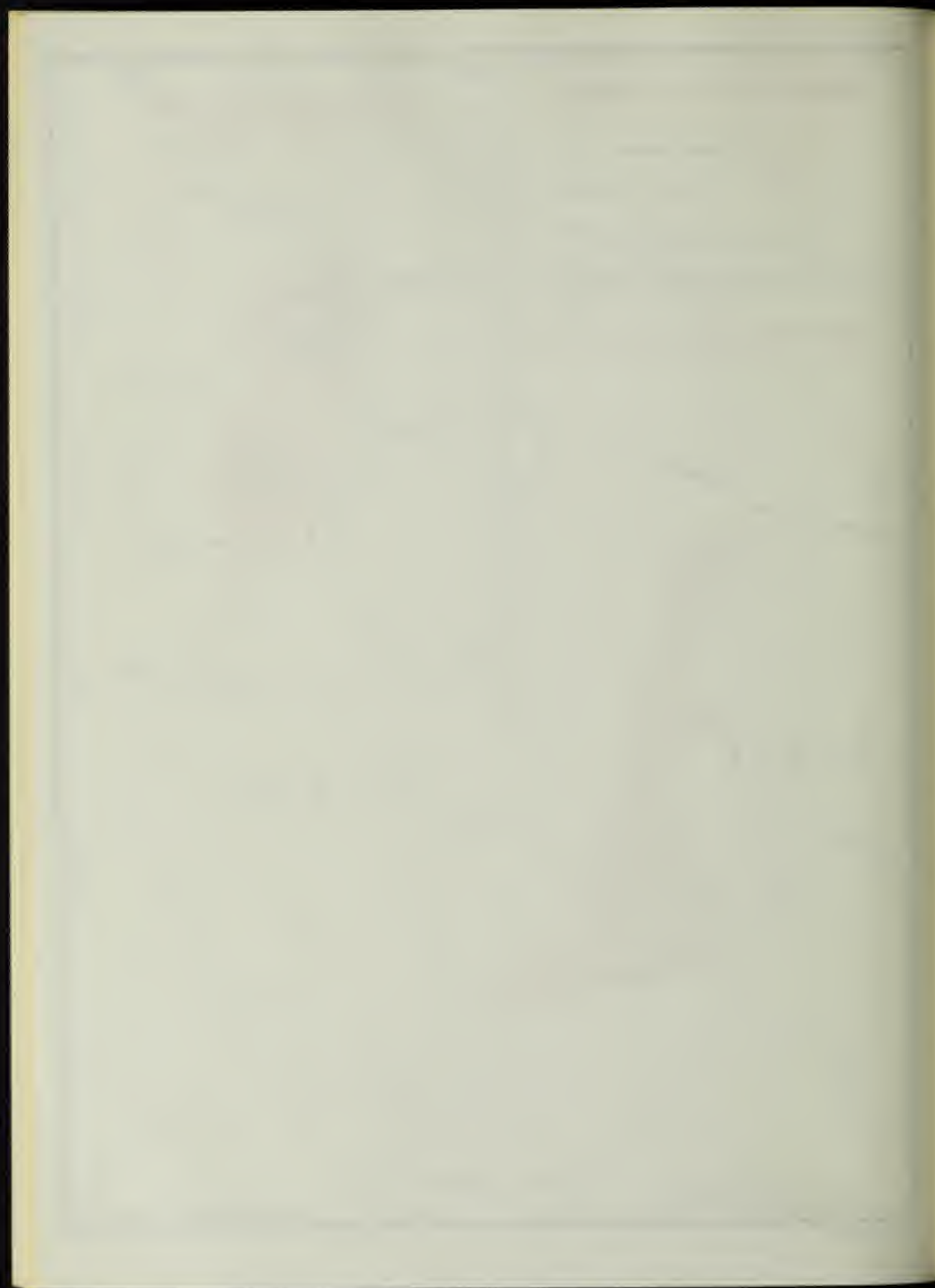
HPIMAW-GAWLAM-KANGFANG VILLAGE AREA



CHINA

BURMA

NAMES AND BOUNDARY REPRESENTATION
ARE NOT NECESSARILY AUTHORITY



BURMA - CHINA BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Burma - China boundary, which totals 1,358 miles in length, has been demarcated by a joint Sino-Burmese Boundary Commission. The Burma - China Boundary Treaty of October 1, 1960, which created the commission, eliminated all territorial disputes between Burma and the Chinese communist regime. As a consequence maps may show the new alignment as an international boundary, but, in view of the United States' recognition of the Republic of China Government, the standard boundary disclaimer should be maintained.

The Sino - Burmese boundary may be divided into two different sectors. In the first, starting from the Indian tripoint, the boundary follows sharp north-south trending Himalayan ridges, which mark the northern and eastern watershed of the Irrawaddy to 26° 00' North. One exception occurs in the northeast where the boundary crosses the Taron Wang, an Irrawaddy tributary. The region is wild and desolate with a sparse non-Burmese population. The second sector begins at the Hpimaw pass, where the boundary abandons the Salween - Irrawaddy drainage divide. This southern borderland is composed of a heavily dissected plateau. The boundary in crossing it utilizes ridges and rivers: the Taping, Namwan, Shweli, Salween, Nan-ting, Nam Hka, and Man-lu Ho all form the frontier for varying distances. After departing from the Man-lu Ho, the boundary extends eastward along a minor watershed to the Nam Nga and thence to the Mekong which it follows southward to the Laos tripoint. As in the north, the southern sector is also inhabited by tribal peoples, primarily ethnic Tai.

II. GEOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

A. Physical

The Burma - China borderland comprises two distinct physiographic regions. In the north and west, the boundary extends along the easternmost extension of the Himalaya Range, the greatest mountain system in the world. To the south and east, the Yünnan plateau is the setting for the boundary. As a result, the Burma - China frontier combines, as a transitional zone, the Indo-Tibetan cultural-physiographic complex of the Himalayas with the Sino-Indochinese eastern plateaus.

In the west, the Himalayas stretch approximately 3,000 miles from Kashmir in an almost unbroken chain of parallel ridges and valleys. Along the Sino-Burmese frontier, the normal east-west alignment of the ranges is altered radically to a north-south one. Furthermore, the ridges are compressed laterally leading to a convergence of valleys containing some of the world's mightiest rivers. Within a distance of 75 miles, the Irrawaddy, Salween, Mekong, and Yangtze flow through parallel, narrow and steep gorges before they disperse to wend their separate ways to the sea.

The separating razor-back ridges are precipitous and possess great elevations, surpassing 20,000 feet in the north. Southward, the Himalayan elevations decrease first to 11,000 feet and finally to 9,000 feet and lower before giving way to the older block system of the Yünnan plateau. In the extreme north the higher ridges are capped with continual snow and ice and glaciers are common. In this region the boundary, for the most part, follows the prominent divide separating the Irrawaddy and Salween rivers, the main ridge of which is situated a mere 10 miles to the west of the latter river. Flat land suitable for cultivation is virtually non-existent.

As is true of most of southeast Asia, the seasonal passage of the monsoons dominate the climate of the northern borderlands. The southwestern, or wet, monsoon brings most of the annual precipitation during the period from June through September. The north-south trend of the great ridges and valleys deflects the southwest-northeast course of the monsoonal winds to one parallel to the general mountain alignment. Heavy precipitation falls on the western valleys, but it decreases markedly to the east. For example, the Irrawaddy valley receives more than the Salween which, in turn, is wetter than the Mekong. In addition, precipitation decreases with increasing latitude until, at approximately 28° North, it virtually ceases and desert-like conditions prevail. The higher mountainous slopes, however, receive considerable precipitation, most in the form of snow in the winter. For most of the region, the permanent snow-line is normally situated near 16,000 feet. Since many of the passes are located at elevations only slightly below this line, they are closed by snow for about one-third to one-half of the year.

The topography of the southern borderlands is more complex; elevations are lower and no sharp alignment pattern of ridges exists. Small basins and larger valleys provide more suitable locations for human settlement. Their presence is in sharp contrast to the forbidding northern terrain. Although the region is usually described as a plateau, the highly developed drainage pattern has cut the surface into a pattern of seemingly isolated ridges and random upland blocks. While the valleys are deep they do not reach the proportions of the gorges of the north. Further to the south, near the border of Laos, the basins and valleys become more pronounced and the "mountain" aspect of the relief is even more subdued.

Climate is similar to the northern borderland by virtue of the dominating monsoons. However, rainfall is much higher and snowfall due to lower elevations and latitude, decreases to zero. Furthermore, the monsoon commences a month earlier and remains a month longer. The average annual precipitation totals approximately 100 or more inches on the exposed slopes, and elsewhere is over 50 inches. Temperatures are in the subtropical range with winter minimums over freezing and summer maximums in the 80's.

The vegetation pattern for the border area is universally one of dense forest cover. In the north, the higher elevations and latitude combine to produce pronounced vertical striation of forests. In the lower valleys and on the mountain slopes to about 2,500 feet, vegetation is a typical tropical rain forest. Above this elevation, lower temperatures result in a temperate, mixed evergreen forest of oak, laurel, rhododendron, and chestnut, etc. Above 10,000 feet, and extending to the snow line, the forest is essentially composed of conifers. At the lower elevations a true forest exists. After several thousand feet, however, the trees become dwarfed and a coniferous, alpine scrub takes over. In the southern lands, vegetation, like the topography, is more complex. The basic cover at lower elevations is the tropical rain forest. However, the presence of a greater number of inhabitants has resulted in a certain amount of modification. In practising their traditional "slash and burn" type of agriculture the natives have removed much of the original forest cover. While the abandoned plots eventually revert to forest, the original vegetation cover does not return. Rather a second growth, scrub forest, lacking the valuable hardwoods of the rain forest, tends to dominate. As in the north, temperate forests are situated on the middle and upper slopes. Bamboo clumps grow as a dense undergrowth in many of the valleys and in cleared areas on the slopes.

B. Socio-economic

The decided physical difference between the northern and southern borderlands seen in the physical environment is mirrored in the economic and ethnographic situations.

The northern sector, as a consequence of its physical environment, is very lightly inhabited. The major concentrations of peoples are in the valleys, which in the vicinity of the frontier offer little flat land for agriculture, while the sharp and high ridges are lightly inhabited. There is also a great diversity among the peoples. In the extreme north, Tibetan tribes are found almost exclusively. Further to the south, the mountains are occupied by Kachin, Lisu, and Lu-Tzu tribes (the latter are found only in a restricted area around the Taron valley). The Kachins are, by far, the most numerous and occupy the greatest territorial expanse. North of the Taron they have settled on the border itself. South of the Taron, they have been displaced by the Lisu. All three of these peoples are of Tibeto-Burman stock.

The Kachin peoples are bound together by a common language in the dialect of the Chingpaw tribal group. However, there is great diversity in their stages of development and political cohesion. Nevertheless, the Kachins have in the past shown a great capacity for resistance to Chinese and Burmese influences. Normally, the Kachin village is situated on a commanding slope and composed, on the average, of 50 or more long houses with several families inhabiting each one. Like most tribal people in southeast Asia, they practise "slash and burn," migratory agriculture. The fields are burned during the dry season and remain fallow until the beginning of the rains. Crops are then planted with the residual ash from the forest serving as the sole fertilizer. This type of agriculture represents a crude exploitation of the soil and fertility declines rapidly. Fields are normally abandoned after three years and village sites after 10 years. The plots revert to a tropical scrub forest or to bamboo thickets.

The southern borderlands, in contrast, have a greater density of population and a higher state of economic development. The wider valleys and more extensive basins have been settled by ethnic Tai.

These peoples have established an intensive sedentary system of agriculture based upon paddy rice. The chief Tai groups are the Shan and the Tai Lu and they have settled in the basins and the valleys of the major rivers: the Taping, Namwan, Shweli, Salween, Nan-ting, Nam Hka, Man-lu, and Mekong. Tai villages are usually small and are surrounded by the rice paddies of the lowlands or terraced hills and lower slopes.

The upland areas of the southern borderlands have been occupied by Kachin and Lisu in the north and Wa, Lolo and Akha in the south and east. Other smaller groups are also found dispersed among the larger ethnic communities. Their land use patterns are essentially the same as the Kachin and Lisu of the north.

A small Chinese minority, which exists in the larger trading centers, forms the bulk of the trading class.

Transportation in the frontier area is not highly developed. The major road, built during World War II, extends from Mandalay northeastward via Lashio to the valley of the Shweli which carries the route to Wan-t'ing in Yunnan. A secondary route, the Stilwell or Ledo Road,

joined this "Burma Road" with India, via Bhamo and Myitkyina, after the fall of southern Burma. These roads, however, have not been maintained, and their present utility is doubtful.

A railroad grade was also established, at least in part, from Lashio to Man-k'a in Yünnan with the intention of joining to the rail system at Kunming. No work has been done on this project in years.

Elsewhere secondary roads or trails lead up to the border. Fair-weather roads cross the frontier west of Myitkyina, near Bhamo, at Man-k'a, and in the south at Mongkai. The amount of commerce using these routes, however, is very limited. The transfer of the Hpimaw region to China, as a result of the 1960 treaty, may have considerable significance. The district is separated from the Irrawaddy valley by a pass which appears to be snow free during the entire year. This route may attain a greater importance as a result of the extensive Chinese road building program in Yünnan.

C. Historical

The boundary area has been like most frontier areas in southeast Asia, peripheral to the historical developments of the two central states. The riverine cultures of the Burmese and Chinese were centered on the alluvial lands of the major rivers to the west and east of the frontier. The immediate area of the boundary has been, in fact, occupied by peoples of alien cultures. During most of their history, the Burmese and Chinese peoples were content to maintain these regions as buffers between the states. National policy was based on non-interference in the affairs of the tribal peoples while exercising only nominal suzerainty.

British occupation of Burma, however, slowly brought a change to this policy. The British, in extending their control over Upper Burma, provided for superintendents to aid the local leaders in their administration. The process advanced slowly due to the resistance of the local tribes and was not completely accomplished until the 1930s. Even then, however, the British permitted the chiefs a great deal of latitude in local administration. In fact, in the northern Kachin areas little positive action was actually accomplished before the war.

Historically, the Chinese have always treated non-Han tribal groups along the frontiers as vassals under Han suzerainty. Equivalents to the British superintendents had been appointed for several centuries to assure at least nominal Chinese control. During the last several centuries, however, the central government had not been able to exercise effective control due, in part, to the unsettled conditions in the state itself. As Chinese influence waned and British administrative control was extended, strong diplomatic pressures were exerted to replace the buffer zone by a definite international boundary.

D. Political

In the latter part of the 19th century, Britain and Manchu China negotiated several treaties to delimit the common boundary. South of the "high conical peak" (i.e., 25°35' N.) to the Mekong, the two powers were in accord, with the exception of the Wa states. No agreement, however, could be reached for a northern boundary along or near the Salween-Irrawaddy divide. After the fall of the Imperial government, the newly-created Republic of China re-examined the Sino-Burmese frontier (among others). Protracted negotiations with the British in the 1930s lead to

the final delimitation of the Wa states boundary in 1941. Again, no solution could be found for the northern boundary. China made extensive claims for all of present-day Burma north of a line extending from Myitkyina almost due west to the Indian boundary.

The communists, with their accession to power in Mainland China, continued these claims to northern Burma with certain limitations. They also repudiated the 1941 agreement on the Wa states. Newly independent Burma resisted these extensive claims as firmly as had the British administrators.

The forbidding terrain, combined with geographic isolation, made this northern Burma territory a veritable No-man's Land, or as the British botanist-explorer F. K. Ward called it, "an Any-man's Land." Chinese claims were based upon political ties dating back to the Ming dynasty in the 16th century. At this time, the Emperor Wan-li despatched an expedition to the territory. By 1580, Chinese control presumably extended to the Hkamti plain (Putao) as a consequence of Chinese expansion from northwestern Yunnan. However, Chinese control thereafter was limited and almost indifferent.

The Burmese claim was similarly based upon historical periods of administration as well as the modern incorporation of the territory into the Union as a consequence of independence.

Sino-Burmese conversations on the border problem began in 1954. In 1956, while on a visit to China, the Burmese premier suggested that the two states accept the boundaries in effect at the time of Burmese independence (1948). The communist regime, after a brief period, countered with the suggestion that a) the "traditional line" including the portion of the McMahon line in the north be accepted, b) the Namwan lease be abrogated, c) the 1941 line be validated, and d) Hpimaw, Gawlam, and Kangfang villages be returned to China. The Burmese Government took the offer seriously and even discussed the proposed territorial transfer with leaders of the Kachin State. The border problem had become increasingly troublesome as a result of military operations by Nationalist Chinese troops. These troops, cut off from the main force of the Republic after its evacuation to Taiwan, had crossed over the boundary and established bases of operations in Burma (as well as in Laos). Frequent incursions into Burma by communist Chinese troops followed.

In spite of the initial favorable reaction of Burma, the border settlement did not attain a successful conclusion until 1960. By the provisions of the newly-negotiated treaties, 132 square miles of Burmese territory was transferred to China (59 miles at Hpimaw and 73 miles at Panglao-Panghung) while Burma gained full title to the 85 square miles of the Namwan leased territory. The precise timing of the treaty appears to be related to the difficulties the Chinese communist regime were having maintaining a good image in Asia. The Sino-Burmese treaty was followed shortly by a Sino-Nepali boundary treaty and still later by additional ones with Pakistan and Afghanistan. These, when combined with the established boundaries with Viet-Nam and Cambodia, leave only the Indian boundary in dispute along China's southern borderlands.

III. ANALYSIS OF BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The delimitation of the Sino-Burmese treaty of October 1, 1960 is appended. The text provides a complete description of the boundary from

the high conical peak northward in Article VII, section 1, while the southern sector is covered in section 2 of the same article. As a consequence, a detailed analysis of the boundary alignment need not be included here.

IV. TREATIES

The following treaties and other international acts have served to delimit the Burma - China boundary:

- A. Peking Convention on Burmah and Thibet signed on July 24, 1886 with ratifications exchanged on August 25, 1887. (BFSP 77:80)

The Convention recognized British protection over Burma as it became a part of the Indian Empire. Article III, dealing with Burma's boundaries, was to be "given effect later".

- B. London Convention signed March 1, 1894 with ratifications exchanged on August 23, 1894. (*ibid.*, 87:1311)

Articles I through III delimited the frontier in the southern borderland leaving the portion north of 25°35' North "to be settled ulteriorly." By the terms of the treaty, China acquired a) northern Theinni, b) Kokang, c) Munglem, and d) Kiang Hung. In turn, Britain obtained the prefecture of Yung Chang and the sub-prefecture of Teng Yüen previously claimed by China.

- C. Peking Agreement signed February 4, 1897 with ratifications exchanged June 5, 1897. (*ibid.*, 89:25).

The London Convention was modified considerably by Articles I-III which redefined the boundary south of the "high conical peak", i.e., 25°35' North. The new delimitation essentially created the southern border as it existed for the next 63 years. One exception, the Wa states' boundary was dealt with later. The 1897 Agreement also served as the basis for the recent delimitation.

Article II granted Britain a perpetual lease to the Namwan Assigned Tract. As in the earlier treaty, no alignment north of the high conical peak could be agreed upon and it was left to "future determination".

Between November 1897 and May 1900, a joint Sino-British boundary commission demarcated the border from the conical peak south to the Nanting River (23°30' N.) and from the Nam Hka (22°10' N.) to the Mekong. No agreement could be reached on the intervening Wa states' segment.

- D. Simla Conference embodied the work of the Anglo-Tibetan Agreement (Exchange of Notes) signed on February 1, 1914 with ratifications exchanged on March 25, 1914. (Note: These are contained in certain editions of Aitcheson, A Collection of Treaties, Engagements and Sanads ..., 5th ed., XIV, pp. 34-35.)

In negotiating a boundary between British India and Tibet, the line was drawn to include Burma as far east as the Isu Razi pass, south of the Taron River near the Irrawaddy-Salween watershed.

The lack of recognition of this agreement, of course, formed the basis for part of the Sino-Indian boundary dispute as well as the Sino-Burmese. The boundary as established has become known as the McMahon Line.

E. Chungking Agreement (Exchange of Notes) dated June 18, 1941.

From December 1, 1935 until April 24, 1937, a Sino-British boundary commission endeavored to delimit the boundary of the Wa states. The work of the commission, which had not initially been satisfactory to the Chinese authorities, was finally accepted by the 1941 Agreement. Later governments were to repudiate the agreement but it nevertheless formed a part of the 1960 delimitation treaty. A joint committee, to demarcate the boundary, could not accomplish its task due to the war.

F. Agreement ... on the Question of the Boundary ... signed on January 28, 1960 (Rangoon PSD 394, February 3, 1960)

The treaty established a mixed Sino-Burmese commission to conduct surveys of the boundary, to set up markers and to draft a formal boundary treaty. Certain fundamentals were agreed to in advance:

- a) the northern boundary would follow the traditional line;
- b) the villages of Hpimaw, Gawlum, and Kangfang would be Chinese;
- c) the Namwan lease would be abrogated and the tract would be Burmese;
- d) the Panhung-Panlao tribal area would be exchanged; and
- e) with the exception of d, the 1941 boundary in the Wa states would be accepted.

G. Boundary Treaty between the People's Republic of China and the Union of Burma, signed on October 1, 1960 (Hong Kong No. 636, Oct. 12, 1960)

This treaty, resulting from the agreement earlier in 1960, completely delimits the Burma-China frontier. The territories exchanged (see Map No. 2) included Hpimaw-Gawlum-Kangfang (59 square miles) to China, the Namwan Assigned Tract (85 square miles) to Burma and the Panhung-Panlao tribal area (73 square miles) to China. It defines the remainder of the boundary in very great detail (see Appendix).

Article 10 provided for the continuation of the Joint Boundary Commission to survey and demarcate the boundary and to prepare a final protocol with maps showing the boundary with all demarcation pillars. The above-mentioned protocol, upon being concluded by the governments of the two countries, shall become an annex to the present treaty and the detailed maps shall replace the maps attached to the present treaty."

H. Protocol between the Government of the People's Republic of China and the Government of the Union of Burma relating to the boundary between the two countries, signed on October 13, 1961.

The complete text of the protocol and the large-scale maps have not yet been made available to the public. However, the great detail of the treaty description, when combined with older and available maps, permit an accurate construction of the new boundary.

V. SUMMARY

The 1960 and 1961 agreements remove the causes of boundary friction between Burma and the Communist regime on the Chinese mainland. They do not eliminate the dispute between Burma and the Republic of China which is recognized by the United States as the legitimate Government

of China. As a consequence the Sino-Burmese may be considered as an accepted international boundary, i.e., one delimited and undisputed, in the de facto sense and so shown on official United States maps. However, in view of the U.S. recognition of the Republic of China, all official maps should bear the standard disclaimer that the "representation of boundaries is not necessarily authoritative."

Until the boundary maps become available to the public, the alignment may be determined from the delimitation description annexed, the two changes shown on map No. 2, and existing British and Burmese published maps.

The Sino-Burmese treaties did not resolve the problem of the Sino-Indian-Burmese tripoint. Chinese claims to most of the Northeast Frontier Agency of India would place the tripoint much further south than the point claimed by India. The treaty (1960) is vague, defining the boundary only as "passing through Gamlang La to the western extremity of the Burmese Indian boundary." There are strong hints, however, that the Protocol carries the Diphu La as the tripoint. This pass has been mentioned many times as a point on the McMahon Line as well as being on the Burmese-Indian border. Hence, according to this reasoning, the pass would be the Sino-Indian-Burmese tripoint. However, modern maps locate the Diphu La south of the Di Chhu - La Te watershed, i.e., the McMahon Line according to Indian claims. The problem appears to stem from inaccurate plotting of the Diphu Pass on earlier maps; it is quite impossible for the pass to be situated where it is shown and to be on the watershed. Since the United States has accepted the validity of the McMahon Line, in principle if not in detail, the Diphu Pass should not be identified as the tripoint.

APPENDIX

NOTE: This Appendix consists of twelve articles reflecting the agreement of the President of the Union of Burma and the Chairman of the so-called People's Republic of China in establishing the boundary between these countries.

ARTICLE I

In accordance with the principle of respect for sovereignty and territorial integrity and in the spirit of friendship and mutual accommodation, the Union of Burma agrees to return to China the area of Hpimaw, Gawlum, and Kangfang (measuring about 153 square kilometres, 59 square miles, and as indicated in the attached map) which belongs to China and the People's Republic of China agrees to delimit the section of the boundary from the junction of the Nam Hpa and the Nam Ting Rivers to the junction of the Nam Hka and the Nam Yung Rivers, in accordance with the notes exchanged between the Chinese and the British Governments on June 18, 1941, with the exception of the adjustments provided for in Article II and III of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE II

In view of the relations of equality and friendship between Burma and China, the two Parties decide to abrogate the "perpetual lease" by Burma of the Meng-Mao Triangular area (Namwan Assigned Tract) which belongs to China. Taking into account the practical needs of the Burmese side, the Chinese side agrees to turn over this area (measuring about 220 square kilometres, 85 square miles, and as indicated in the attached map) to Burma to become part of the territory of the Union of Burma. In exchange, and having regard for historical ties and the integrity of the tribes, the Burmese side agrees to turn over to China to become part of Chinese territory the areas (measuring about 189 square kilometres, 73 square miles, and as indicated in the attached map) under the jurisdiction of the Panhung and Panlao tribes, which belong to Burma according to the provision in the notes exchanged between the Chinese and the British Governments on June 18, 1941.

ARTICLE III

For the convenience of administration by each side and having regard for the intra-tribal relationship and production and livelihood needs of the local inhabitants, the two parties agree to make fair and reasonable adjustments to a small section of the boundary line as defined in the notes exchanged between the Chinese and the British Governments on June 18, 1941, by including in China Yawng Hok and Lungnai Villages and including in Burma Umhpa, Pan Kung, Pan Nawng and Pan Wai Villages, so that these boundary-line intersected Villages will no longer be intersected by the boundary line.

ARTICLE IV

The Chinese Government, in line with its consistent policy of opposing foreign prerogatives and respecting the sovereignty of other countries, renounces China's right of participation in mining enterprises at Lufang of Burma as provided in the notes exchanged between the Chinese and the British Governments on June 18, 1941.

ARTICLE V

The Contracting Parties agree that the section of the boundary from the High Conical Peak to the western extremity of the Burmese-Chinese boundary, with the exception of the area of Hpimaw, Gawlum and Kangfang, shall be fixed along the traditional customary line, i.e., from the High Conical Peak northwards along the watershed between the Taping, the Shweli and the Nu Rivers and the section of the Tulung (Taron) River above Western Chingdam Village on the one hand and the Nmai Hka River on the other, to a point on the south bank of the Tulung (Taron) River west of Western Chingdam Village, thence across the Tulung (Taron) River and then further along the watershed between the section of the Tulung (Taron) River above Western Chingdam Village and the Tsayul River on the one hand and all the upper tributaries of the Irrawaddy River excluding the section of the Tulung (Taron) River above Western Chingdam Village on the other, to the Western extremity of the Burmese-Chinese boundary.

ARTICLE VI

The Contracting Parties affirm that the two sections of the boundary from the High Conical Peak to the junction of the Nam Hpa and the Nam Ting Rivers and from the junction of the Nam Hka and the Nam Yung Rivers to the south eastern extremity of the Burmese-Chinese boundary at the junction of the Nam La and the Lanchang (Mekong) Rivers were already delimited in the past and require no change, the Boundary being as delineated in the maps attached to the present Treaty.

ARTICLE VII

1. In accordance with the provisions of Articles I and V of the present Treaty, the alignment of the section of the boundary line from the High Conical Peak to the western extremity of the Burmese-Chinese boundary shall be as follows:

(1) From the High Conical Peak (Mu Lang Pum, Manang Pum) the line runs northwards, then southwards and then northeastwards along the watershed between the Taping River (Ta Ying Chiang), the Lung Chuan Chiang (Shweli) and the Nu (Salween) Rivers on the one hand and the Nmai Hka River on the other, passing through Shuei Cheng (Machyi) Pass, Panwa Pass, Tasamin Shan, Hpare (Yemawlaunggu Hkyet) Pass and Chitsu (Lagwi) Pass to the source of the Chu-Ita Ho (Chu-Iho Ta Ho).

(2) From the source of the Chu-Ita Ho (Chu-Iho Ta Ho) the line runs northwestwards along the Chu-Ita Ho (Chu-Iho Ta Ho) to its junction with its tributary flowing in from the north, thence northwards along this tributary to a point on the watershed between the tributaries of the Hpimaw (Htang Kyam Kyaung) River on the one hand and the Wang Ke (Moku Kyaung) River and its tributary, the Chu-Ita Ho (Chu-Iho Ta Ho) on the other, thence westwards along this watershed, passing through Macu Lo Waddy (Height 2423 metres, 7950 feet), thence northwards till it crosses the Hpimaw (Htang Kyam Kyaung) River west of Hpimaw Village: thence northwards along the ridge, passing through Luksang Bum and crossing the Gan (Kang Hao) River to reach the Wuchung (Wasok Kyaung) River thence westwards along the Wuchung (Wasok Kyaung) River to its junction with the Hsiao Chiang (Ngawchang Hka) River: thence northwards up the Hsiao Chiang (Ngawchang Hka) River to its junction with the Ta Hpawte (Hpawte Kyaung) River. Thence the line runs north of Kangfang Village generally eastwards and then south-eastwards along the watershed between the Hsao Hpawte (Hpawshi Kyaung) River and the Wuchung (Wasok Kyaung) River on the one hand and the Ta Hpawte (Hpawte Kyaung) River on the other to a point on the watershed between the Nu (Salween) and the Nmai Hka Rivers.

(3) From the above mentioned point on the watershed between the Nu (Salween) and the Nmai Hka Rivers, the line runs generally northwards along the watershed between the Nu (Salween) River and the section of the Tulung (Taron) River above Western Chingdam Village on the one hand and the Nmai Hka River on the other passing through Kia Ngo Tu (Sajyang) Pass, Sala Pass, Ming Ke (Nahke) Pass, Nichi U (Gigi Thara) Pass, Kawchi Thara Pass, Jongjit L'Ka, Hkora Razi to Tusehpong Razi (3289 metres, 10833 feet).

(4) From Tusehpong Razi, the line runs generally northwestwards along the ridge, passing through height 2892 meters and height 2140.3 metres, to a point on the south bank of the Tulung (Taron) River to its junction with its tributary on its northern bank, and thence northwestwards along the ridge to Kundam Razi (Lung Awng Hpong, 3623 metres, 11888 feet).

(5) From Kundam Razi (Lung Awng Hpong) the line runs generally northwards and northwestwards along the watershed between the section of the Tulung (Taron) River above Western Chingdam Village on the one hand, and the upper tributaries of the Irrawaddy River (excluding the section of the Tulung (Taron) River above Western Chingdam Village) on the other passing through Thala Pass, Sungya (Amansan) L'ka to Yulang Pass.

(6) From Yulang Pass the line runs generally southwestwards along the watershed between the Tsayul (Zayul) River on the one hand and the upper tributaries of the Irrawaddy River on the other, passing through Gamlang L'Ka to the western extremity of the Burmese-Chinese boundary.

2. In accordance with the provisions of Articles I, II, III, and VI of the present Treaty, the alignment of the section of the boundary line from the High Conical Peak to the southeastern extremity of the Burmese-Chinese boundary shall be as follows.

(1) From the High Conical Peak, the line runs generally south-westwards along the watershed between the upper tributaries of the Taping River, the Mong Ka Hka and the upper tributaries of the Ta Pa Chiang (Tabak Hka) Rivers on the one hand and the lower tributaries of the Nmai Hka River on the other, passing through Ta Ka Kou (Lunghkyen Hkyet) and thence northwestwards to Hsiao Chueh Pass (Tabak-Hku Hkyet).

(2) From Hsiao Chueh Pass (Tabak-Hku Hkyet) the line runs down the Ta Pa Chiang (Tabak Hka), the Mong Ka Hka and up the Shih Tzu (Pankoi Hka) River the upper stretch of which is known as the Hkatong Hka River to its source.

(3) From the source of the Shih Tzu (Pankoi Hka) River the line runs southwestwards and then westwards along the watershed between the Mong Lai Hka on the one hand and the Pajao Hka, the Ma Li Ka River and the Nan Shan (Namsang Hka) River on the other to the source of the Laisa Stream.

(4) From the source of the Laisa Stream, the line runs down the Laisa Stream and up the Mu Lei Chiang (Molechaung) and the Gayang Hka (Cheyang Hka), passing through Ma Po Tzu (A-Law-Hkyet), and then runs southwards down the Nan Pen Chiang (Nampaung Hka) to its junction with the Taping River: thence eastwards up the Taping River to the point where the Taping River meets a small ridge west of the junction of the Kuli Hka Stream with the Taping River.

(5) From the point where the Taping River meets the above mentioned small ridge, the line runs along the watershed between the Kuli Hka

Stream, the Husa (Namsa Hka) River and the tributaries of the Namwan River on the one hand and the tributaries of the Taping River west of the Kuli Hka Stream on the other, up to Pang Chien Shan (Pan Teng Shan).

(6) From Pang Chien Shan (Pan Teng Shan), the line runs southwards to join the Kindit Hka, then down the Kindit Hka and the Nam Wa Hka (Pang Ling River) to a point on the south bank of the Nam Wa Hka (Pang Ling River) southeast Man Yung Hai Village and north of Nawang Sa Village thence in a straight line southwestwards and then southwards to the Nam Sah (Manting Hka) River then it runs down the course of the Nam Sah (Manting Hka) River as at the time when the boundary was demarcated in the past to its junction with the Namwan River, thence down the course of the Namwan River as it was at that time to its junction with the course of the Shweli River as it was at that time.

(7) From the junction of the course of the Namwan River and the Shweli River as at the time when the boundary was demarcated in the past to the junction of the Shweli and the Wanting (Nam Yang) Rivers, the location of the line shall be as delineated on the maps attached to the present Treaty. Thence the line runs up the course of the Wanting (Nam Yang) River as at the time when the boundary was demarcated in the past and the (Weishang Hka), then turns northwestwards along a tributary of the Nam Che Hka (Nam Hse) River to its junction with the Nam Che Hka (Nam Hse) River, thence eastwards up the Nam Che Hka (Nam Hse) River, passing through Ching Shu Pass, and thence along the Monglong Hka and the original course of Mong Ko (Nam Ko) River as at the time when the boundary was demarcated in the past, thence up the Nam Hkai and the Nam Pang Wa Rivers, passing through a pass, and then along the Man Hsing (Nam Hpawn) River (whose upper stretch is known as the Nam Tep (Nam Lep) River to its junction with the Nu (Salween) River, thence eastwards up the Nu (Salween) River to its junction with the Ti Kai Kou (Nan Men) Stream.

(8) From the junction of the Nu (Salween) River with the Ti Kai Kou (Nan Men) Stream, the line runs southwards along the Ti Kai Kou (Nan Men) Stream, then southwards along the watershed between the Meng Peng Ho the upper stretch of the Nam Peng River on the one hand and the tributaries of the Nu (Salween) River on the other up to Pao Lou Shan.

(9) From Pao Lou Shan, the line runs southeastwards along the Wayao Kou Stream, the ridge south of the Mai Ti (Mai Ti Ho) River, the Pan Chiao Ho and the Hsiao Lu Chang (Hsin Chai Kou) Stream up to the source of the Hsiao Lu Chang (Hsin Chai Kou) Stream. From the source of the above stream to the junction of the Nam Hpa and the Nam Ting Rivers, the location of the line shall be as delineated on the maps attached to the present Treaty. The line then runs eastwards for about four kilometres (about three miles) up the Nam Ting River and thence southeastwards along the northwest slope of Kummuta Shan (Loi Hseng) to the top of Kummuta Shan (Loi Sheng).

(10) From the top of Kummuta Shan (Loi Hseng) the line runs southeastwards along a tributary of the Kung Meng Ho (Nam Loi Hsa) River to its junction with another tributary flowing in from the southeast: thence the latter tributary to a point northwest of Maklawt (Ma Law) Village. Thence, the line runs in a straight line to a point southwest of Maklawt (Ma Law) Village, and again in a straight line crosses a tributary of the Yun Hsing (Nam Tap) River to Shien Jen Shan, located east

of the junction of the above mentioned tributary with another tributary of the Yun Hsing (Nam Tap) River, thence along the watershed between the above two tributaries of the Yun Hsing (Nam Tap) to the source of the one to the west and then turn westwards and southwest along the Mong Ling Shan ridge, up to the top of Mong Ling Shan. Thence it runs eastwards and southeastwards along the Nam Pan River to its junction with a tributary northeast of Yakaw Chai (Ya Kou Sai) Village, which flows in from the southwest: thence in a southwesterly direction up that tributary to a point northeast of Yakaw Chai (Ya Kou Sai) Village, from where it turns southwards passing through a point east of Yakaw Chai (Ya Kou Sai) Village, and crosses a tributary of the Nam Pan River south of Yakaw Chai (Ya Kou Sai) Village, thence towards to the source of the Nam It River a little east of Chao Pao (Taklyet No) Village. Thence the line runs southwards along the Nam It and the Nam Mu Rivers, and then turns eastwards along the Nam Kunglong and the Chawk Hkrak Rivers to the northeast source of the Chawk Hkrak River.

(11) From the northeast source of the Chawk Hkrak River, the line runs southwards and eastwards along the watershed between the upper tributaries of the Nam Kunglong River on the one hand and the southern tributaries of the Chawk Hkrak River and the Nan Tin (Nam Htung) River on the other, to a point on the west side of Umhpa Village. Thence it runs eastwards pass a point 100 metres north of Umhpa Village, and then eastwards up to the source of a small river, on the above mentioned watershed, then along the ridge eastwards to the source of a tributary of the Mongtum (Nam Tum) River (the upper stretch of which is called the Tatung River), which it follows in an easterly and north-easterly direction to its junction with another tributary of the Mongtu (Nam Tum) River following it from the southeast: thence it follows this tributary to its source on the watershed between the Mongtum (Nam Tung) and the Lung Ta Hsiao Ho (Nam Lawng) Rivers. It then crosses the watershed in an easterly direction to the source of the Lung Ta Hsiao Ho (Nam Lawng) River which it follows to its junction with its tributary flowing in from the north, thence in northerly direction along the above mentioned tributary passing through a point on the Kanpinau ridge, thence generally eastwards along a valley crossing the junction of two subtributaries of a tributary of the Lung Ta Hsiao Ho (Nam Lawng) River then northeastwards to the watershed between the Mongtum (Nam Tum) River on the one hand, and the Nam Ma River on the other, until it reaches height 1941.8 metres (6370 feet). Thence the line runs eastward, then southwards and then northwestwards along the watershed between the Mongtum (Nam Tum), the La Meng (Nam Meng Ho), the He (Hei Ho), the Ku Hsing Ho (Nam Hka Lam) and the Nam Hka Hkao (Nam Hsiang) Rivers on the one hand and the Nam Ma River on the other, up to a point on this watershed northwest of La Law Village.

(12) From the point on the above mentioned watershed northwest of La Law Village the line runs down the nearest tributary of the Nam Hka Hkao River and thence down the Nam Hka Hkao River to its junction with a tributary flowing in from the southwest. Thence the line runs generally southwestwards up that tributary to its source, which is northeast of and nearest to height 2180 metres (7152 feet) thence it crosses the ridge at a point 150 metres (492 feet) southeast of the above mentioned height and then turns southwards to the source of the nearest tributary of the Nam Lung

(Nam Sak) River, rising at the above mentioned height. Thence it runs along this tributary to its junction with the Nam Lung (Nam Sak) River, from where it proceeds along the Nam Lung (Nam Sak), the Nam Hse and the Nam Hka Rivers to the junction of the Nam Hka and the Nam Yung Rivers, and thence up the Nam Yung Rivers, to its source.

(13) From the source of the Nam Yung River the line runs in southeasterly direction to the watershed between the Na Wu (Nam Wong) and the Nam Pai (Nam Hpe) Rivers: thence generally eastwards along the above mentioned watershed and then eastwards along the Na Wu (Nam Wong) River, which it follows to its junction with the Nan Lai (Nam Lai) River, thence along the watershed between the Na Wu (Nam Wong) and the Nan Lai (Nam Lai) Rivers to the Ang Lang Shan (Loi Ang Lawng) ridge: thence northwards along the ridge to the top of Ang Lang Shan (Loi Ang Lawng, thence generally eastwards along the ridge, crosses the Nam Tung Chik (Nam Tonghkek) River and then follows the watershed between the tributaries on the west bank of the Nam Lei (Nam Lwe) River at the north of the La Ting (Hwe-Kye-Tai) River and the Nan La Ho a tributary of the Nam Ma River on the one hand and the tributaries of the west bank of the Nan Lei (Nam Lwe) River at the south of the La Ting (Hwe-Kye-Tai) River on the other, up to the top of Pang Shun Shan (Loi Pang Shun).

(14) From the top of Pang Shun Shan (Loi Pang Shun) the line runs generally eastwards along the La Ting-Hwe, Kye-Tai) River, the Nam Lei (Nam Lwe) River, the course of the Nan Lo (Nam Maw) Stream as at the time when the boundary was demarcated in the past, and the Nan Wo (Nambok) River to the source of the Nan Wo (Nambok) River at Nan Wo Kai Nan Shan (Loi Kwainang).

(15) From the source of the Nan Wo (Nambok) River at Nan Wo Kai Nai Shan (Loi Kwainang) the line runs generally eastwards along the watershed between the Nan La (Nam Lak) (a tributary of the Nam Lei (Nam Lwe)) River, the Nan Pai (Nam Hpe) and the Nan Hsi (Nam Haw) Rivers on the one hand and the Nan Ping (Nam Hpen), the Nan Mau (Nam Mawng) and the Nan Hsi Pang (Nam Hsi Pang) Rivers on the other, up to San Min Po (Loi Hsammong).

(16) From San Min Po (Loi Hsammong) the line runs in a general northeasterly direction to a point on the west bank of the Nam Lam River. Thence it descends the Nam Lam River to the foot of Chiu Na Shan (Kyu Nak) on the south bank of the Nam Lam River and then runs in a general southeasterly direction passing through Hue Ling Lang (Hwe Mawk Hkio), La Ti (La Tip), Nan Meng Hao (Nammong Han) to Mai Niu Tung (Mai Nin Tawng): thence the line runs in a general northeasterly direction passing through Lung Man Tang (Longman Tawng) to the Hui La (Hwe La) Stream, which it follows northwards to its junction with the Nam Lam River. Thence the line runs eastwards and southwards along the Nam Lam, the Nan Chih (Nam Se) Rivers and the Nam Chia (Hwe Sak) Stream, to Lei Len Ti Fa Shan (Loi Len Ti Hpa). The line then follows the Nam Mot (Nan Mai) the Nam Tung (Nan Tung) and the Nam Ta Rivers to Hsing Kang Lei Shan (Loi Makhinkawng).

(17) From Hsing Kang Lei Shan (Loi Makhinkawng) the line runs eastwards along the watershed between the Nam Nga River and its upper tributaries on the one hand and the Nam Loi River (including its tributary the Nam He River) on the other, to the top of Kwang Pien Nei Shan (Kweng Peknoi).

(18) From the top of Kwang Pien Nei Shan (Kwang Peknoi) the line runs generally northeastwards along the Hue Le (Nam Luk) River and the course of the Nam Nga River as at the time when the boundary was demarcated in the past, to the junction of the Nam Nga and the Lanchang (Mekong) Rivers: thence down the Lanchang (Mekong) River up to the southeastern extremity of the Burmese-Chinese boundary line at the junction of the Nam La and the Lanchang (Mekong) Rivers.

3. The alignment of the entire boundary line between the two countries described in this article and the location of the temporary boundary marks erected by both sides during joint survey are shown on the 1/250,000 maps indicating the entire boundary and on the 1/50,000 maps of certain areas which are attached to the present treaty.

ARTICLE VIII

The Contracting Parties agree that wherever the boundary follows a river, the mid-stream line shall be the boundary in the case of an un-navigable river, and the middle line of the main navigational channel (the deepest watercourse) shall be the boundary in the case of navigable river. In case the boundary of river changes its course, the boundary line between the two countries shall remain unchanged in the absence of other agreements between the two sides.

ARTICLE IX

The Contracting Parties agree that:

1. Upon the coming into force of the present Treaty, the Meng-Mao Triangular Area to be turned over to Burma under Article II of the Present Treaty shall become territory of the Union of Burma;

2. The area of the Hpimaw, Gawlum and Kangfang to be returned to China under Article I of the present Treaty and the areas under the jurisdiction of the Panhung and Panlao tribes to be turned over to China under Article II shall be handed over by the Burmese Government to the Chinese Government within four months after the present Treaty comes into force;

3. The areas to be adjusted under Article III of the present Treaty shall be handed over respectively by the Government of one Contracting Party to that of the other within four months after the present Treaty comes into force.

ARTICLE X

After the signing of the present Treaty, the Burmese-Chinese Joint Boundary Committee constituted in pursuance of the Agreement between the two countries of January 28, 1960, shall continue to carry out necessary surveys of the boundary line between the two countries, to set up new boundary markers and to examine, repair and remould old boundary markers, and shall then draft a protocol setting forth in detail the alignment of the entire boundary line and the location of all the boundary markers, with detailed maps attached showing the boundary line and the location of the boundary markers. The above-mentioned protocol, upon being concluded by the Governments of the two countries, shall become an annex to the present Treaty and the detailed maps shall replace the map attached to the present Treaty.

Upon the conclusion of the above-mentioned protocol, the tasks of the Chinese-Burmese Joint Boundary Committee shall be terminated and the Agreement between the two parties on the question of the boundary between the two countries of January 28, 1960 shall cease to be in force.

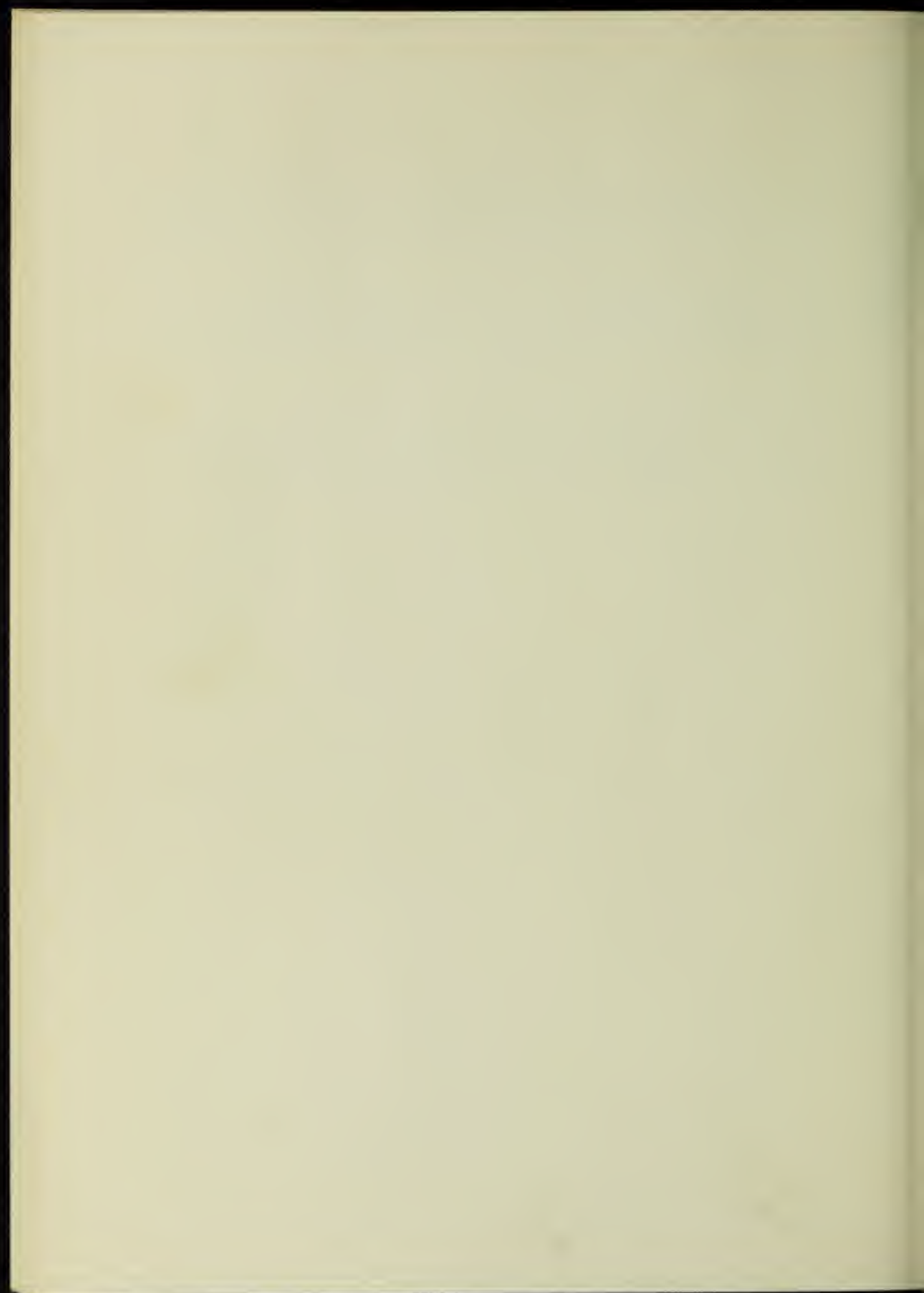
ARTICLE XI

The Contracting Parties agree that any dispute concerning the boundary which may arise after the formal delimitations of the boundary between the two countries shall be settled by the two sides through friendly consultations.

ARTICLE XII

The present Treaty is subject to ratification and the instruments of ratification will be exchanged in Rangoon as soon as possible.

The present Treaty shall come into force on the day of the exchange of the instruments of ratification.



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n35i

map ref.

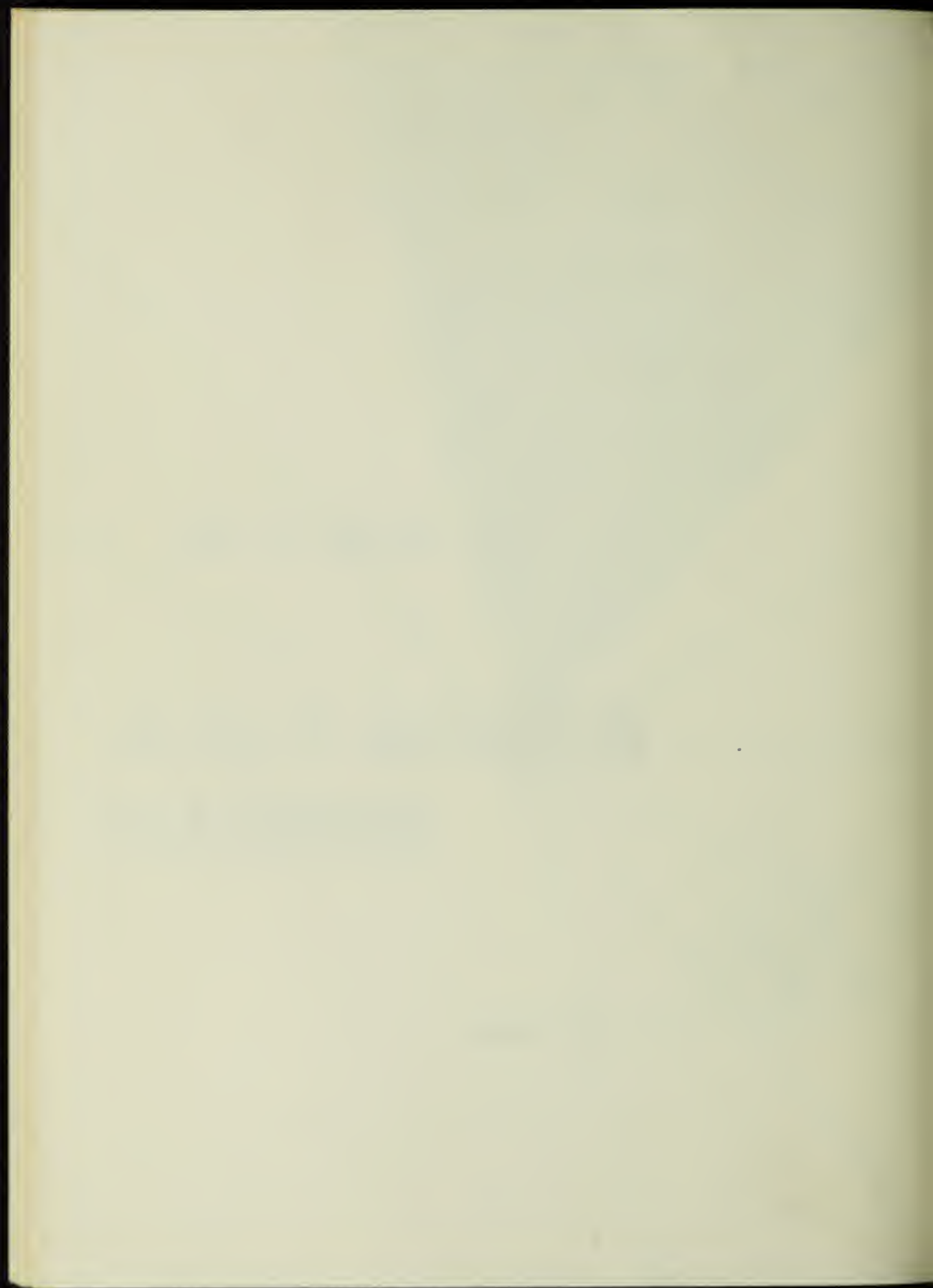
International Boundary Study

NO.43 - DECEMBER 30, 1964

RUMANIA-U.S.S.R. BOUNDARY



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

No. 43

Rumania - U.S.S.R. Boundary

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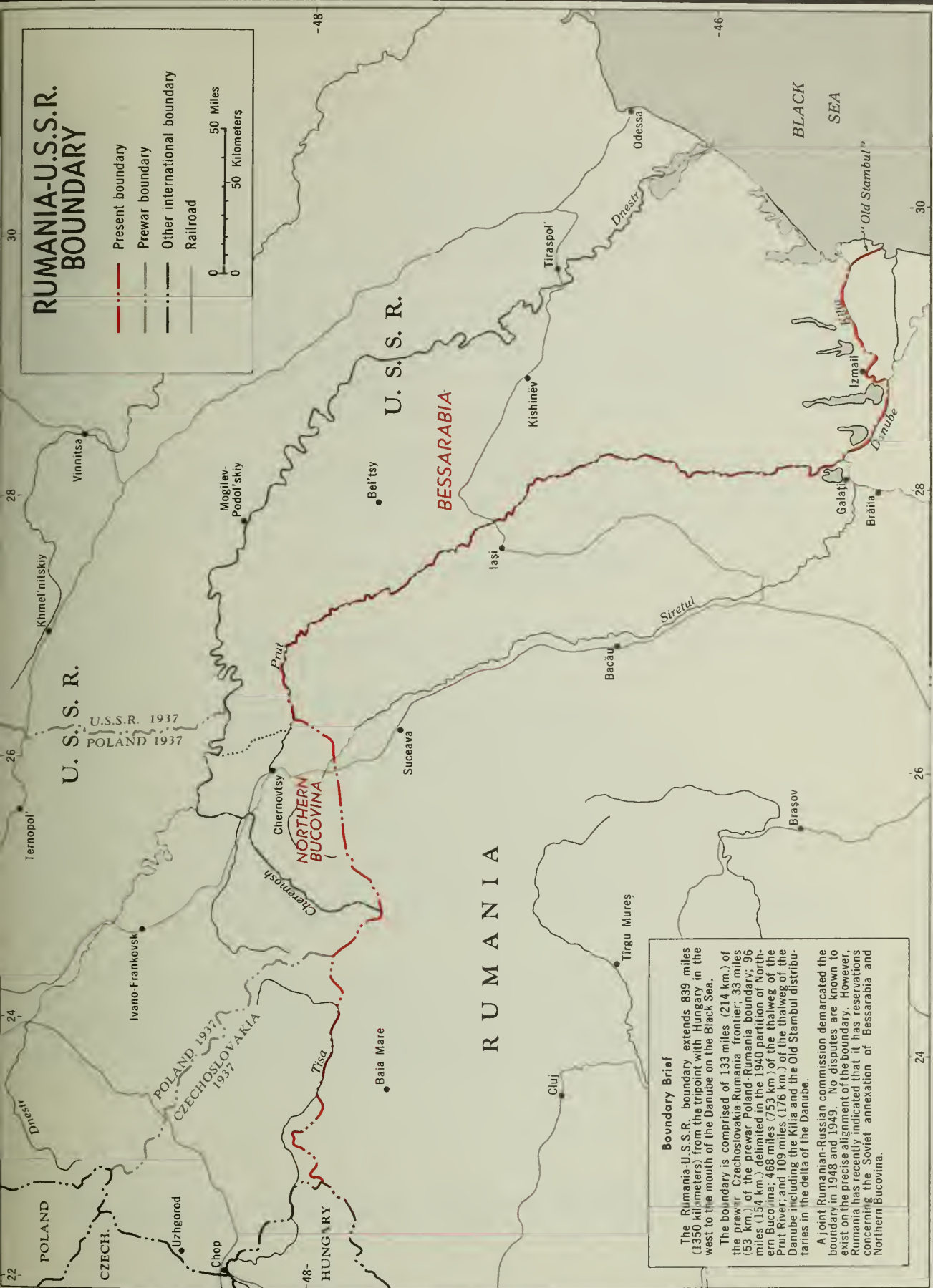
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RUMANIA-U.S.S.R. BOUNDARY

- Present boundary
- Prewar boundary
- Other international boundary
- Railroad

0 50 Miles
0 50 Kilometers

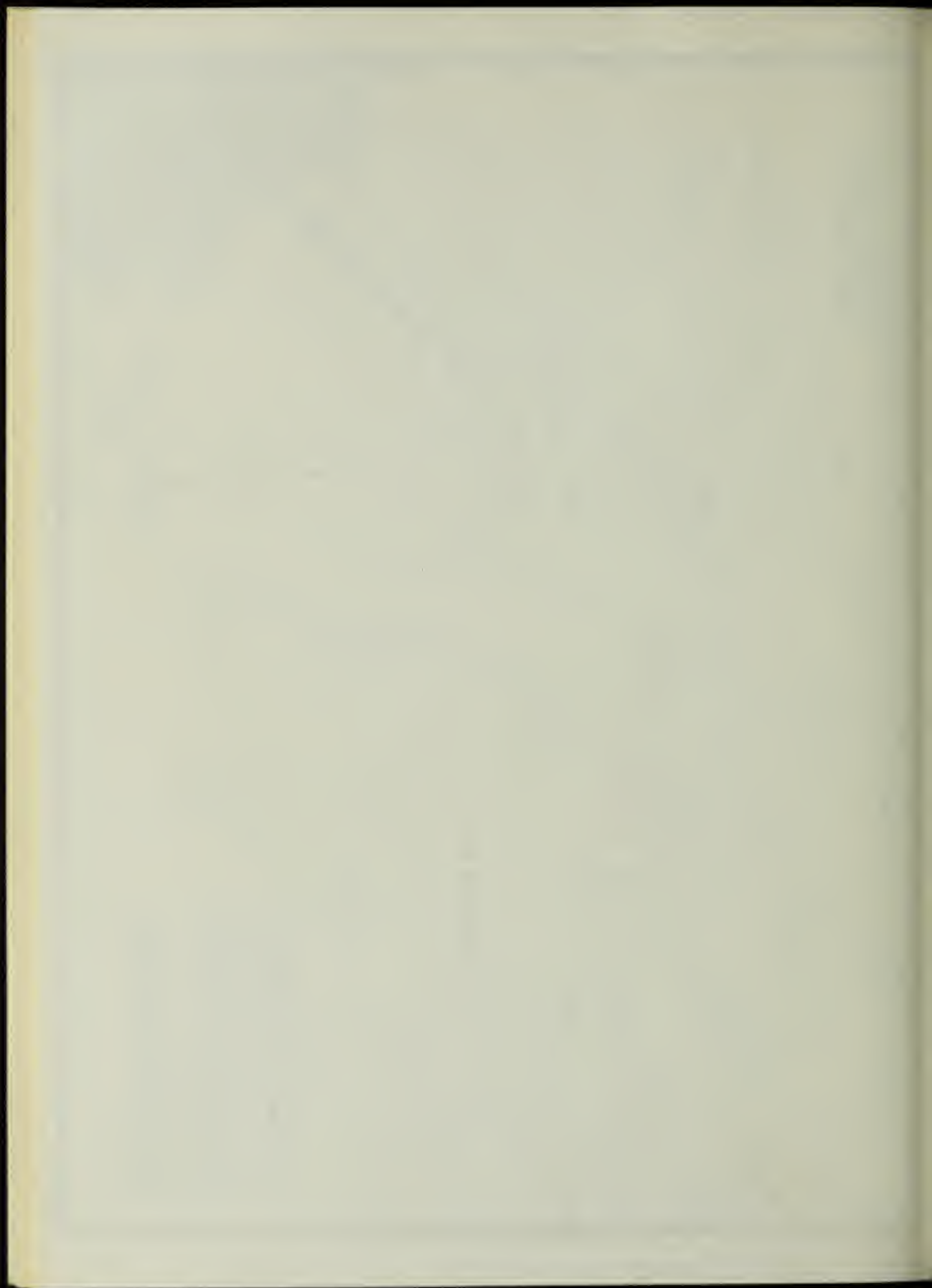


Boundary Brief

The Rumania-U.S.S.R. boundary extends 839 miles (1350 kilometers) from the tripoint with Hungary in the west to the mouth of the Danube on the Black Sea.

The boundary is comprised of 133 miles (214 km.) of the prewar, Czechoslovakia-Rumania frontier; 33 miles (53 km.) of the prewar Poland-Rumania boundary; 96 miles (154 km.) delimited in the 1940 partition of Northern Bucovina; 468 miles (753 km.) of the thalweg of the Prut River; and 109 miles (176 km.) of the thalweg of the Danube including the Kilia and the Old Stambul distributaries in the delta of the Danube.

A joint Rumanian-Russian commission demarcated the boundary in 1948 and 1949. No disputes are known to exist on the precise alignment of the boundary. However, Rumania has recently indicated that it has reservations concerning the Soviet annexation of Bessarabia and Northern Bucovina.



THE RUMANIA - U.S.S.R. BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Rumania - Union of Soviet Socialist Republics boundary extends 839 miles (1350 kilometers) from the tripoint with Hungary in the west to a tributary of the Danube on the Black Sea.¹

The boundary comprises sectors of 133 miles (214 km.) of the pre-war Czechoslovakia - Rumania frontier; 33 miles (53 km.) of the pre-war Poland - Rumania boundary; 96 miles (154 km.) delimited in the 1940 partition of Northern Bucovina; 468 miles (753 km.) of median line or thalweg of the Prut River; and 109 miles (176 km.) of the thalweg of the Danube including the Kilia and Old Stambul arms in the delta. The latter two sectors form the western and southern limits of Bessarabia.

A joint Rumanian - Russian commission demarcated the boundary in 1948 and 1949. No disputes are known to exist on the precise alignment of the boundary. However, Rumania has recently hinted in an indirect manner its reservations concerning the Soviet annexation of Bessarabia and Northern Bucovina.

II. GEOGRAPHICAL BACKGROUND

A. Physical

From west to east, the Rumanian - U.S.S.R. boundary crosses the following natural regions:

- a) the Transylvanian Basin;
- b) the Carpathian Mountains and foothills;
- c) the Moldavian-Bessarabian plateau; and
- d) the plains of the lower Danube valley and delta.

The Transylvanian Basin, which extends across the extreme western edge of the frontier, is a flat, almost featureless plain averaging about 300 feet above sea level. The lack of relief results in meandering rivers, many canals, and a dense rural settlement pattern. Shortly before the Tissa River is reached the boundary passes through a low, mountainous outlier of the Carpathians. In contrast to the plains, this region is heavily forested and virtually unpopulated. The boundary then joins the Tissa valley which resembles physically the Transylvanian Basin.

Near the confluence of the Tissa and the Vișeu rivers, the boundary departs from the former and enters the true Carpathian Mountain zone. This range is one of Europe's major mountain systems comprising a young folded range of the alpine type arcing across the continent from the Austro-Czech frontier to the Danubian plain of Wallachia. In the Rumanian-U.S.S.R. frontier area, the Carpathians extend from northwest to southeast

¹ Measured in the Office of the Geographer on Rumanian 1:100,000 topographic maps.

in a series of parallel ridges. The outer regions comprise low, eroded, sandstone ranges which decrease in width from northwest towards the southeast. This sandstone zone is a source of rock salt and petroleum. In contrast, the inner ranges of the Carpathians include both young volcanic rocks and older limestone ridges. In the immediate area of the frontier, however, elevations are lower than those found both to the northwest and to the southeast. Peaks and ridges average approximately 5,000 feet (1650 meters) in elevation. The lower elevations of the ridges are covered with dense beech and oak forests while the higher slopes bear coniferous stands. Many of the peaks and ridge tops extend above the tree line and provide excellent pasturage for the flocks of the native shepherds. Particularly in the limestone regions, valleys are deeply eroded and many of the passes are gorge-like in appearance.

Near Vicovul-de-Jus, the frontier reaches the Moldavian-Bessarabian plateau. This region has a diversified landscape composed of a series of old and low platforms sloping generally eastward. They represent a continuation of the same landforms which occupy most of southern European Russia. The many rivers have dissected the plateau into blocks aligned generally north-south within Bessarabia and northwest-southeast within Moldavia. Maximum elevations attain approximately 700 feet in the west and 500 feet in the east while the river valleys generally average 100 or more feet lower than the enclosing uplands. The valley of the Prut, which carries the boundary for over 460 miles, measures approximately 2.5 to 10 miles in width. The valley bottom is very flat, its many lakes and swamps indicating poor drainage.

North of Galați, near the junction of the Prut and the Danube, the frontier region becomes lower in elevation and local relief declines. This is the area of the lower Danubian plain and delta. The valleys of the principal Danubian tributaries are drowned forming extensive, elongated lakes which dominate the landscape. Owing to the poor drainage and generally unhealthy conditions, settlement is limited to a few isolated regions of higher elevation. Galați and Tulcea are the major Rumanian centers, and Izmail and Kiliya dominate the Russian sector.

South of the delta is the massif of Dobruja, whose complex and resistant formations divert the Danube to the north.

Climatically, the Rumanian-Russian frontier region resembles the inner plains region of the United States. The mean annual temperatures are between 50° F. and 53° F. in the lowlands with lower readings in the Carpathians. Winter mean temperatures vary between 15° and 20° F. in the Carpathians and 25° F. to 30° F. in the Moldavian-Bessarabian plateau. During the summer period average monthly temperatures range between 68° F. and 76° F.

Precipitation has a considerable annual range over the frontier region. In the Transylvanian Basin, the yearly total is between 20 and 30 inches. Eastward in the Carpathians, the total climbs to over 80 inches before falling again in Moldavia and Bessarabia to approximately 30 inches. In the immediate vicinity of the Black Sea, however, annual precipitation is normally below 20 inches. Precipitation is reasonably well distributed throughout the year with a minimum in the winter (January - February) and a maximum in the early summer (May - July). No month is completely without precipitation.

B. Historical

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the Balkans were a "shatter belt" between the monolithic Slav state of Russia and the states of western

and central Europe. The "Eastern Question" which threatened European stability and peace occupied a considerable amount of energy and time of the great powers. The term "Balkanization" became synonymous with fractionalization into small political entities often, by connotation, as a consequence of foreign interference. The problems of the Balkans result primarily from the peninsula's geographic position between Europe and Asia coupled with the antagonistic, nationalist aspirations or irredentism. As a consequence of this position a vast succession of peoples and races have migrated into and through the region. Often these groups have appropriated specific areas and settled down to create separate identities or nation-states. However, almost all too often, they have occupied small scattered regions intermingling but not mixing with other ethnic or linguistic groups.

The Rumanians constitute a unique group in the Balkans. Formed originally by an amalgamation of peoples - Roman colonists and local Dacians - they have been able to perpetuate their Latin language and heritage in spite of the flood of peoples invading their lands after the collapse of Roman authority. During the repeated migrations of Huns, Slavs, Avars, Bulgars, Magyars, Tatars, and Turks through the lowlands of the lower Danube, the Rumanians, i.e., Wallachians and Moldavians, withdrew into the fastness of the Carpathians to emerge, relatively intact, after the pressures ebbed.

In the early Middle Ages, the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia began to form in the region of Roman Dacia. Often under the influence of Hungary and/or Poland at first, the two fell to Turkish suzerainty late in the fifteenth century. Turkish influence at first was slight in comparison with the lower Balkans, but by 1714 there began a more direct domination of Moldavian and Wallachian affairs. The Turks removed the native hospodars as rulers and introduced the practice of "farming out" the Rumanian lands to rich Greeks from the Phanar district of Constantinople, hence the designation Phanariote Period. This suzerain relationship tended to reduce considerably Turkish influence which might have otherwise been felt by the Rumanians. As a consequence, traditional forms of government were maintained and the local, landed gentry continued to exist, although without much real authority.

The power of the Ottoman Empire waned, as the strength and interest of both Austria and Russia increased. In 1774, Turkey granted Russia the right to intervene in the affairs of the two Danubian principalities. Three years later, Austria annexed Bucovina, until then, a part of Moldavia. Russian troops also occupied the two principalities during the Russo-Turkish War of 1806-12. Although the major portions were returned to Turkey by the Treaty of Bucharest (1812) the basis for future difficulties was established with the Russian annexation of Bessarabia. In 1822 the Rumanians revolted against the Turks and their Greek puppets. The sultan suppressed the revolt but replaced the Greek rulers and reverted to Rumanian hospodars. However, Turkish excesses led to a second Russian occupation which lasted until 1834.

By this time, the position of the Latin Rumanians between Slavic Russia and the Bulgars and other South Slavs was becoming very difficult. The Russian expansion along the shores of the Black Sea toward the straits had begun to alarm western European states. Rumanians realized, as well, that the Russian advance could be stopped only with outside support. The Crimean War was fought and again Rumania was occupied by Russian troops and later by Austrian forces. As a result of the treaties of Vienna and Paris, the great powers guaranteed independent and national administrations to both principalities under Turkish suzerainty. Lower Bessarabia

was restored to the principality of Moldavia although Russia retained the major area, i.e., the northwest. The same negotiations established the free navigation on the Danube.

In 1859, both principalities elected the same prince and with French and Russian support the new state of Rumania came into being shortly thereafter (1861). There followed a period of intensive nationalism with the creation of universities, a national church, Rumanian parties, the development of the Rumanian language, etc. Both Russia and Turkey, however, continued to intervene in local affairs. In 1877, Rumania declared itself completely independent of Turkey and joined Russia in the war with Turkey which followed. This independence was recognized by the Congress of Berlin (1878) but Rumania again was forced to cede lower Bessarabia to the Czar. In exchange, however, Bulgarian Dobruja became Rumanian and the new state was not excluded from access to the Black Sea.

No additional territorial changes occurred along the northern frontier of Rumania until 1918. After the collapse of the Czarist regime and the eastern front, Germany troops occupied most of Rumania and by the Treaty of Bucharest, May 8, 1918, forced the cession of a vital strip of western territory. The defeat of the Central Powers nullified the Treaty of Bucharest restoring these lands to Rumania. Concurrently, the turmoil in Russia proper spread to the peripheral areas and a "Moldavian-Bessarabian Democratic Republic" was established in the trans-Prut territory. Internally, the new government was torn by elements desiring to join the new soviet state, those wishing to be independent and by a third group pledged to union with Rumania. The Ukraine soon declared itself independent from the nascent soviet state and Bessarabia, cut off from the remainder of the country, followed suit. Rumanian troops entered the country to preserve order. Shortly thereafter the local legislature requested incorporation into Rumania. A treaty signed in 1920 (with final ratification in 1927) between Rumania and the Allied Powers of France, Italy, Japan, and the United Kingdom served as Rumania's validation of title to Bessarabia. Neither the United States nor Russia signed the treaty. The Soviet Government maintained that the action was illegal and never recognized the loss of Bessarabia. Rumania, in contrast, stated that the population was predominantly Moldavian, i.e., Rumanian, and that the merger was legally accomplished. Although the two governments in November 1923 agreed to provide for relations across the Dniester until the boundary question could be settled, the issue continued to poison relations. (At approximately the same time Rumania incorporated Austrian Bucovina and Hungarian Transylvania, which had been contested territories, into its national territory. The treaties of peace covered these annexations.)

In June 26, 1940, the U.S.S.R., with German concurrence in part pursuant to the Secret Additional Protocol to the German-Soviet Non-aggression Pact of August 23, 1939 in which Germany agreed to recognize the Soviet interest in Bessarabia, demanded the cession of Bessarabia. The U.S.S.R. also demanded, without German concurrence, Northern Bucovina. Rumania accepted the Soviet terms two days later. However, after the German attack on Russia, Rumania regained the administration over the region (plus "Trans-Nistra" a sector of southern Ukraine including Odessa) only to lose it again by the terms of the Moscow Armistice of 1944 which restored the June 1940 boundary. The final treaty of peace with Rumania (February 10, 1947) confirmed this settlement.

C. Socio-economic

A considerable number of reports and studies were published between the wars over the rights of the two states to the possession of the trans-

Prut territories. The major claim on both sides was based upon the ethnic character of the population. Unfortunately, the demographic data were conflicting and unreliable. Estimates, purporting to be unprejudiced, placed the population at 2,700,000 composed of 1,000,000 Rumanians, 900,000 Ukrainians, 300,000 Jews and sizeable numbers of Ruthenians and Germans. Rumanians held an absolute majority in the four northern districts of Bessarabia and a relative majority in the center (Tighina-Bender and Cahul) and the south (Ismail). Ukrainians had a relative majority in the south-east (Cetatea Alba - Akkerman) as did Ruthenians in Bucovina.

On this basis, Rumanians constituted about 38% of the population and Russians-Ukrainians-Ruthenians somewhat over 30%. The Jewish population totaled about 12% and German approximately 3%; the remainder included Poles, Turks, Tatars, Bulgarians, Czechs, and Serbs. Most Rumanian sources, however, claimed that these figures were based on the Russian census of 1897 and that the Russians had enumerated Russian- and Ukrainian-speaking Rumanians as non-Moldavians. Consequently, it is claimed, the Moldavians constituted 70% of the total population and were everywhere in the majority. Evidence does not substantiate this extreme claim although the total Moldavian population probably exceeded 50%. Rumanians, for example, probably never totaled more than 33% of the Bucovina population while the Ruthenians constituted about 35%. Germans, the next largest block, made up over 20% of the total.

The population of Bessarabia-Bucovina was predominantly rural and agricultural. Over 90% of the total area was devoted to gardens, orchards, cropland, and pasture. The remainder, except for urban areas, was covered by forest, swamp, lakes, rivers, etc. The principal crops have been cereals (wheat, rye, oats, maize, and barley), potatoes, tobacco, and fruit. The limited local industries were based upon the processing of the agricultural products.

Transport across the frontier is restricted in the delta region by the width of the Danube and the general character of the surface. The principal route is between Reni and Galați where both a road and a railroad cross the lower Prut. Northward, the next major center is situated at Ungeny-Iași where again the Prut must be crossed. In the extreme north, the valley of the Siretul provides a natural route for the joining of the two segments of Bucovina across the present international boundary. In the Carpathians, significant trans-frontier transport is lacking and not until the valley of the Tissa is reached does one find major centers in Sighet and Satu-Mare.

D. Political

At present, there appears to be no open disagreement between Rumania and the U.S.S.R. over the precise alignment of their common boundary. After the incorporation of Rumania into the Soviet sphere of influence after World War II, such Rumanian dissatisfaction with the present boundary which might have existed, could not have been expressed openly.

Recently, however, Rumania has endeavored to follow a more independent and national course within the Soviet bloc. On several occasions, the question of Bessarabia and Bucovina has been raised in publications.

III. ANALYSIS OF BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

From the current Hungarian tripoint in the west to the prewar tripoint of Czechoslovakia-Poland-Rumania, the boundary was determined after World War I by the partition of the Hungarian counties of Ugocsa and Máramaros. The council of Ambassadors, meeting in Paris after World War I, established the criteria for an equitable distribution of territory based primarily upon ethnic factors. As a consequence, there is little relation between the boundary and natural features. However, about 5 miles south of Tissa, the boundary enters an outlier of the Carpathians and follows the local water divide, which averages about 1,800 feet in elevation, parallel to and south of the river. Near Tyachev the boundary joins the thalweg of the Tissa. Approximately 1.5 miles upstream from the confluence of the Vişeu, the boundary mounts a local water divide which is then utilized as the frontier through this heavily forested portion of the Carpathians.

As a consequence of the Russo-Rumanian delimitation, the boundary abandons this water divide at the former Poland-Rumania-U.S.S.R. tripoint. By a series of geometric lines, the boundary joins the upper course of the Suceava River southwest of Sipotele-Sucevei (Shipotele-Kamerale) which forms the boundary to Russkaya with three minor exceptions. These exceptions give to the U.S.S.R. territory on the south bank of the river opposite the settlements of 1) Shipotele-Kamerale, 2) Seletin, and 3) Russkaya. Immediately east of Russkaya, the boundary crosses the Suceava and roughly parallels it at a distance varying between 1.5 and 4 miles.

Northeast of Siret, the boundary turns northward to join the Prut approximately 2 miles east of Novoselitsa. The Prut then forms the boundary to its confluence with the Danube. The Danube is followed into the delta where the boundary coincides with the Kilia arm to Vilково and then the Old Stambul arm to the Black Sea.

IV. TREATIES AND OTHER ACTS

Many bilateral and multilateral agreements have affected the Rumania - U.S.S.R. boundary. Listed below are the primary sources since the Russian incorporation of Bessarabia in the 19th century:

- A. Treaty of Peace between Russia and Turkey signed at Bucharest on May 28, 1812, with ratifications exchanged on June 23, 1812. (BFSP, 13:908)

By the terms of this treaty, Moldavia and Wallachia were restored to Turkish administration with the exception of Bessarabia which was retained by Russia. Various acts followed in 1826 (Convention of Akkerman), 1828 (Treaty of Adrianople), and 1849 (Convention of Balta Liman) through which Russian influence in the principalities grew.

- B. Treaty of Paris for the Restoration of Peace, etc. signed on March 30, 1856 (by Austria, France, Great Britain, Prussia, Russia, Sardina and Turkey) with ratifications exchanged on April 27, 1856. (BFSP, 46:8)

Article XX restored to Moldavia three districts of southeastern Bessarabia. The treaty also established free navigation on the Danube and settled many other problems dealing with Turkey.

- C. Treaty to modify the Treaty of San Stefano signed in Berlin on July 13, 1878 (by Austria-Hungary, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Russia, Turkey) with ratifications exchanged on August 3, 1878. (BFSP, 69:749)

The San Stefano agreement ended the Russo-Turkish war and granted independence to Rumania, among others. The so-called Congress of Berlin met to modify the treaty by limiting Russia's increasing influence in Balkan affairs. However, the three districts of southeastern Bessarabia were retroceded to Russia in exchange for (Bulgarian) Dobruja. Russia again gained access to the Danube delta but Rumania was not excluded from the Black Sea. There followed many actions - e.g., Rumania became a kingdom in 1881 - affecting the balance in the Balkans but not altering the Russo-Rumania boundary.

- D. Articles of Union signed in Chisinau on March 27, 1918 by Rumanian and Bessarabia with approval by the Rumanian Council on April 8, 1918.

By this action, Bessarabia joined with Rumania. Soviet Russia refused to accept the union and continued to lay claim to the territory until the early years of World War II. The Allied Supreme Council had agreed in January 1918 to Rumanian occupation of Bessarabia solely for purposes of military occupation. Rumania, in effect, obtained a certain degree of international sanction for the action by:

- E. Treaty of Paris signed on October 28, 1920 (by Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, principal Allied Powers, and Rumania). Ratifications were delayed until 1922 (Great Britain), 1924 (France), and 1927 (Italy). Japan never ratified the treaty.

Article I states that the High Contracting Powers "recognize the sovereignty of Rumania over Bessarabia, comprised within the present Rumanian frontier, the Black Sea, the source of the Dniester from its mouth to the point where it is cut by the former line between Bucovina and Bessarabia, and this former line."

The treaty was concluded pursuant to a Declaration of the Allied Supreme Council (consisting at that time of the United Kingdom, France and Italy) of April 3, 1920 which acquiesced in the 'reunion of Bessarabia' with Rumania. Neither the United States nor Soviet Russia participated in the Declaration or the Treaty. [FOR. REL., 1920, vol. III, pp. 426-435.] The Soviet Union thereafter refused to recognize the transfer of Bessarabia. The United States on June 16, 1933, accorded recognition of de facto Rumanian sovereignty over Bessarabia. [FOR. REL., 1933, vol. II, pp. 656-682.]

- F. Treaty of Peace between the Allied and Associated Powers and Austria signed at Saint-Germain-en-Laye on September 10, 1919 and in effect on July 16, 1920.

By Article 59 Austria renounced to Rumania "the former Duchy of Bucovina as lies within the frontiers of Rumania which may ultimately be fixed by the Principal Allied and Associated Powers." This action was completed by the Conference of Ambassadors in various meetings within the next three years. Most of the conference actions, i.e., the Rumania-U.S.S.R. frontier along Bessarabia being excepted, were formalized by bilateral treaties between the states concerned.

- G. Convention concerning the settlement of questions arising out of the delimitation of the frontier between the Kingdom of Rumania and the Czechoslovak State, signed at Prague on July 15, 1930 with ratifications exchanged at Bucharest on July 15, 1930. (LNTS, 164:3793)

Based on the treaty of peace and the decision of the Conference of Ambassadors (No. 204-XVIII of February 7, 1923) and the actions of the Czech-Rumania boundary commission, the demarcation of the frontier was formally accepted. Provisions for the boundary in the Tissa ("median line of the main branch of the river ... at lowest water") were also made. The 1:2,500 maps of the commission and the attached survey sheets were declared authoritative in the words "... they shall prevail."

H. Final Protocol regarding the delimitation of the frontier between the Republic of Poland and the Kingdom of Rumania, signed at Bucharest on May 17, 1935. (LNTS, 173:4027)

On the basis of the meetings of a mixed boundary commission (meeting No. 5 held on January 26, 1928) and an Exchange of Notes dated October 10, 1928, the common boundary was delimited as extending from "the point Stoh (1655 meters), marking the triplex confinium of Rumania, Poland, and Czechoslovakia, ... the frontier shall run generally along the old pre-war cadastral line between Galicia and Hungary. The frontier line shall be traced along the line of mountain crest nearest to the above-mentioned cadastral line ...". The additional parts of the delimitation have been replaced by the Rumanian-Soviet accords of a later date.

I. Soviet-Rumanian Exchange of Communications of June 26 - 28, 1940

Rumania acceded on June 28, 1940 to Soviet ultimatums demanding return of Bessarabia and the cession of Northern Bucovina and the Hertza District of northwestern Moldavia. The transfer deprived Rumania of 19,800 square miles of territory, approximately 17 percent of its total area. Additional cessions of Rumanian territory occurred during the same period. 16,350 square miles (Transylvania) were ceded to Hungary pursuant to the Vienna Arbitration of August 30, 1940 made by Germany and Italy. 2,970 square miles (Southern Dobruja) were ceded to Bulgaria on September 7, 1940. This cession, however, has not been the subject of protest by the Rumanian Government. The three cessions also reduced the population of Rumania by 6,785,000: 2,864,402 in Bessarabia, 545,267 in Bucovina, 2,500,000 in Transylvania, and the remainder in Southern Dobruja.

J. Treaty of Peace with Rumania signed in Paris on February 10, 1947.¹

The peace treaty recognized the border established by the Soviet-Rumanian exchange of communications of July 26-28, 1940 and the Soviet-Czechoslovak agreement of June 29, 1945 (and voided the German territorial arrangements made by the Vienna Award of August 30, 1940) substantially as set forth in the Armistice of September 12, 1944 signed with Rumania by the United States, the United Kingdom, and the Soviet Union as Allied Powers "acting in the interests of all the United Nations". The final peace treaty was signed by those "Allied and Associated Powers" at war with Rumania and who actively waged war against European enemy States. This comprised the Armistice signatories and Australia, the Byelorussian SSR, Canada, Czechoslovakia, India, New Zealand, the Ukrainian SSR and the then Union of South Africa. These actions restored the June 28, 1940 boundary with the U.S.S.R. It was lengthened, however, by the Polish and Czech cessions of territory in Galicia and in the Carpatho-Ukraine.

¹ For an excellent legal study of the territorial settlements, see: Marjorie M. Whiteman, Digest of International Law, Vol. 3, §§10-14, Department of State Publication 7737, U.S.G.P.O., Washington, D. C., October 1964.

On September 29, 1949 the demarcation of the frontier was completed and the final documents were signed by the Joint Russian-Rumanian Frontier Commission. (Documents relating to the Hungarian-Rumanian-Soviet border had been signed on July 30.) Several additional treaties on maintenance and settlements of problems (November 25, 1949 and February 27, 1961) have been negotiated but they do not affect the general location of the boundary. The 1961 agreement did add that "the boundary line shifts in accordance with the natural changes occurring in the position of the middle of the main channel in all navigable rivers." It further states that "the boundary line passing through non-navigable rivers, streams and channels shall follow any shifts that may occur on the median line as a result of certain natural changes in the banks of such rivers, streams and channels." However, if changes are abrupt and involve population and valuable structures, the boundary will not change if the two states "fail to come to an agreement on such a change ..."

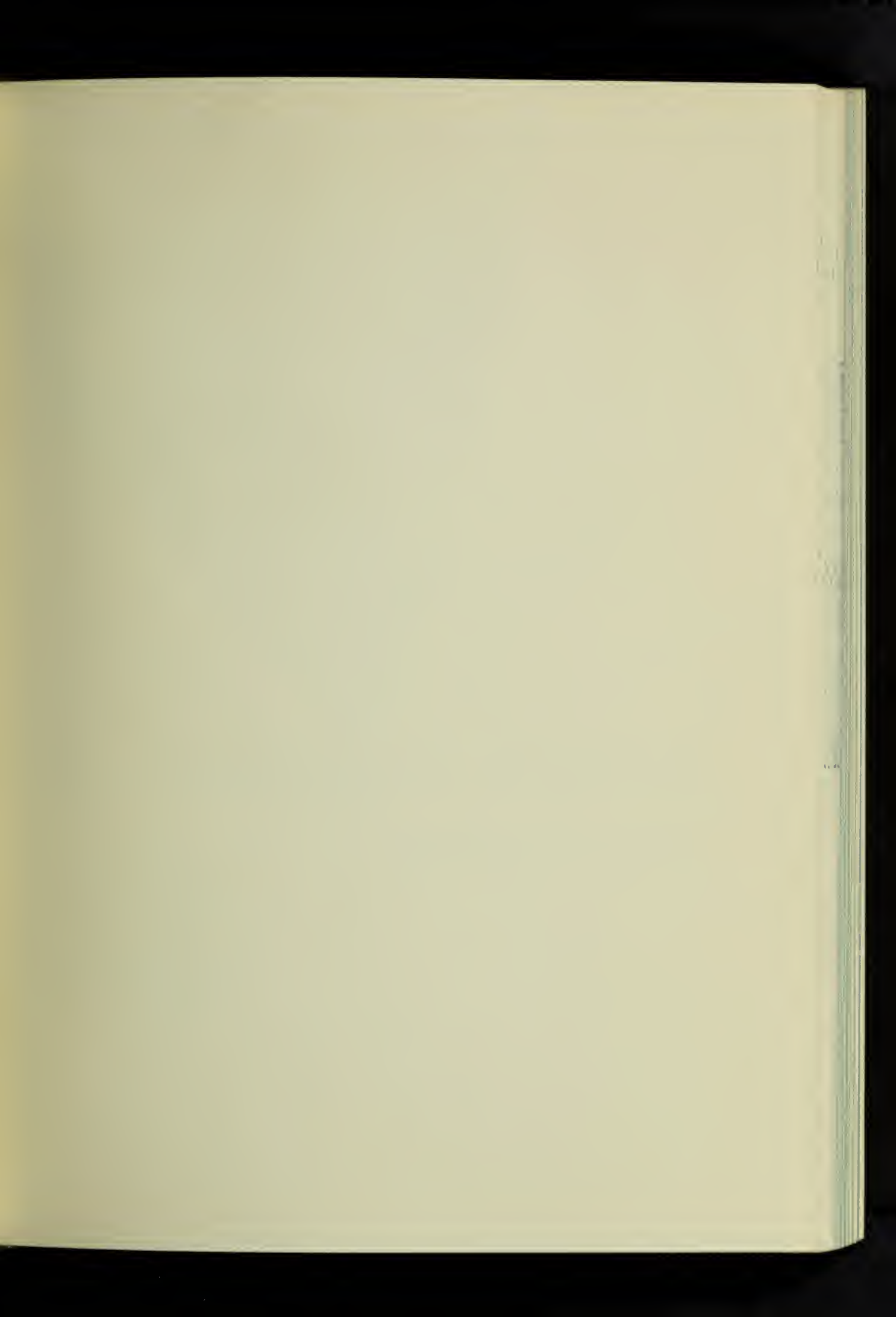
The Soviet-Rumanian Treaty, Convention and Protocols of November 25, 1949 concerning the administration of the frontier were superseded by the Treaty of February 27, 1961 (JPRS 15332; Bucharest D-62, 10/10/62, DR 229 .R9A3.

V. SUMMARY

The 839 mile long Rumanian - U.S.S.R. boundary is completely demarcated by a) pillars erected along land frontiers, b) the median lines of non-navigable water bodies, or c) the thalwegs of navigable rivers. No disputes are known to exist on the alignment of the boundary and maps of both states have the same representation. It should be noted that neither country releases large- or medium-scale maps and a precise comparison is not possible. Recently, Rumania has entered rather vague reservations concerning the cession of Bessarabia and Bucovina.

The Rumanian 1:100,000 topographic map series issued immediately before World War II is an excellent source for compilation. Certain sheets printed in 1941 have revisions to the boundary incorporating the 1940 Russo-Rumanian agreement. There are no problems for small-scale compilation since the boundary is shown properly on the map annexed to the 1947 treaty of peace. In addition, the International Map of the World sheets (1:1,000,000) are accurate for the scale.







27
n35i

map 2-8

International Boundary Study

NO. 44 - March 1, 1965

TANZANIA-ZAMBIA BOUNDARY



issued by: The Geographer



This International Boundary Study is one of a series of specific boundary papers prepared by the Geographer, Office of Research in Economics and Science, Bureau of Intelligence and Research, Department of State, in accordance with provisions of Bureau of the Budget Circular No. A-16.

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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

No. 44

Tanzania - Zambia Boundary

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The Geographer
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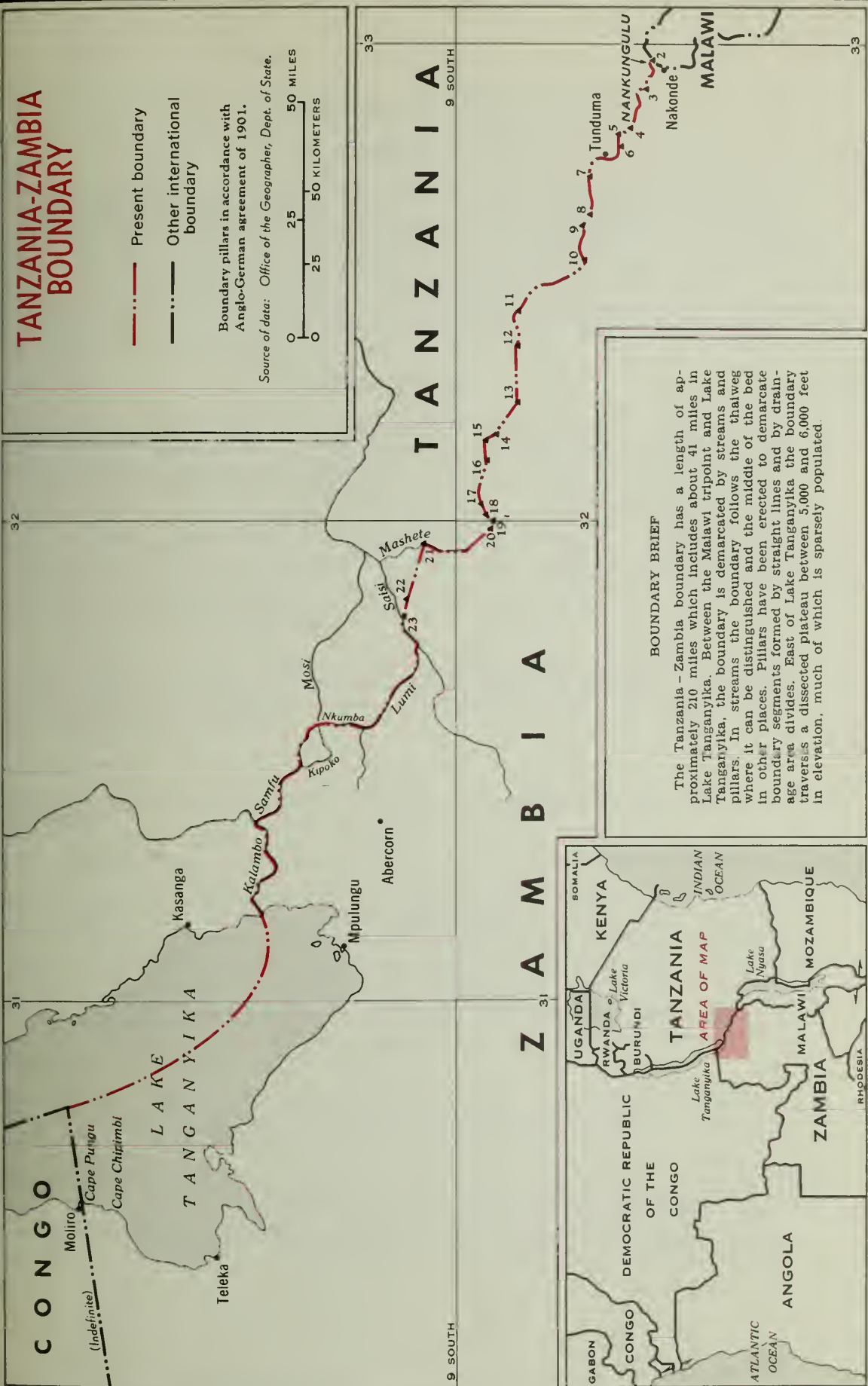
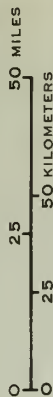


TANZANIA-ZAMBIA BOUNDARY

- Present boundary
- Other international boundary

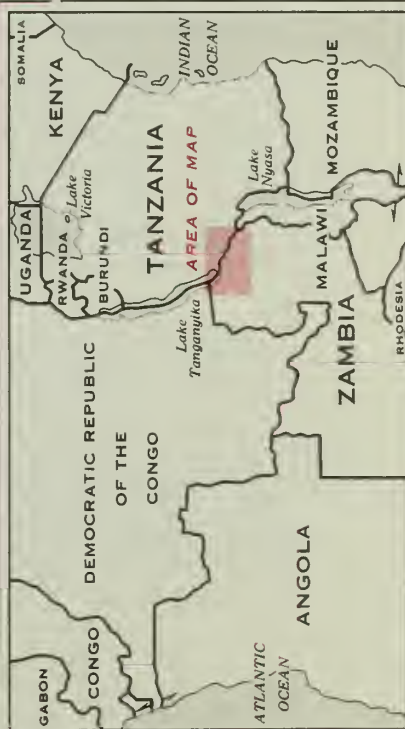
Boundary pillars in accordance with Anglo-German agreement of 1901.

Source of data: Office of the Geographer, Dept. of State.



BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Tanzania-Zambia boundary has a length of approximately 210 miles which includes about 41 miles in Lake Tanganyika. Between the Malawi tripoint and Lake Tanganyika, the boundary is demarcated by streams and pillars. In streams the boundary follows the thalweg where it can be distinguished and the middle of the bed in other places. Pillars have been erected to demarcate boundary segments formed by straight lines and by drainage divides. East of Lake Tanganyika the boundary traverses a dissected plateau between 5,000 and 6,000 feet in elevation, much of which is sparsely populated.





TANZANIA - ZAMBIA BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Tanzania - Zambia boundary has a length of approximately 210 miles which includes about 41 miles in Lake Tanganyika. Between the Malawi tripoint and Lake Tanganyika, the boundary is demarcated by streams and pillars. In streams comprising the boundary, the line follows the thalweg where it can be distinguished and the middle of the stream bed otherwise. Boundary pillars have been erected to demarcate segments formed by straight lines and by drainage area divides. There are no known boundary disputes, however, the exact location of the Congo (Léopoldville) tripoint remains unresolved.

II. BACKGROUND

The Tanzania - Zambia boundary originally was established to delimit British and German spheres of influence in East Africa. An Anglo-German agreement in 1890¹ fixed the limits of their territories between Lake Tanganyika and the Malawi tripoint.² Decisions on the exact alignment of the boundary were made by a joint demarcation commission in 1898, and an agreement approving the work of the commission was signed by the United Kingdom and Germany in 1901. Between World War I and the independence of the Tanganyika region of Tanzania³ in 1961, the boundary was interterritorial in scope with British administered states on both sides. On October 24, 1964, the former British Protectorate of Northern Rhodesia⁴ became independent as the Republic of Zambia.

The segment of the boundary in Lake Tanganyika apparently was established de facto. A median line was extended into the lake to the limits of the Congo from the mouth of the Kalambo, which forms the boundary between Tanzania and Zambia.

¹ Complete titles and sources of boundary documentation are listed in the Appendix.

² The agreement also included the present Malawi - Tanzania boundary.

³ Between 1885 and World War I, Tanganyika was the major part of German East Africa, the remainder being Ruanda-Urundi and Kionga triangle. Following World War I it was placed under British administration as a League of Nations mandate and after World War II as a U.N. Trust Territory. From 1891 to independence on December 10, 1963, Zanzibar was a protectorate of the United Kingdom. The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar was constituted by a merger on April 27, 1964, and the name of the state was changed to the United Republic of Tanzania on October 29, 1964.

⁴ Under British administration for approximately 75 years, Northern Rhodesia was a member of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland operative between August 1, 1953 and December 31, 1963.

⁵ The Berlin Conference of 1884-85 recognized King Leopold II of Belgium as the sovereign head of state for the International Association of the Congo. On July 1, 1885, the name of the entity was changed to the Congo Free State which was retained until it became a Belgian colony in 1908. The Belgian Congo acquired independence on June 30, 1960.

III. BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The Anglo-German agreement of 1901 delimits the boundary between the Malawi tripoint and Lake Tanganyika. The boundary reference in Section 1 of the treaty starts from the Malawi tripoint on the top of Nankungulu (Nakungulu) hill marked by boundary pillar No. 2.

... From here the boundary goes along the waterparting past a boundary pillar (3) about 6.5 kilom. from Nakungulu to a boundary pillar (4) opposite to the source of the Mpemba Stream; here it leaves the waterparting and follows the Mpemba downstream to a boundary pillar (5) on the left bank about 119 metres north of the village Tontera; from this point it goes in a straight line to the true west to a boundary pillar (6) about 2,560 metres off again on the waterparting; it then follows the waterparting between the Nkana and its affluents on the north and the Karunga and its affluents on the south past the following boundary pillars:-

- (1) Kumbi Hill (7).
- (2) About 3 kilom. north of the English Station Fife (8).
- (3) About 400 metres south of the source of the Ntakimba Stream (9).
- (4) Between the old and the new Stevenson Road (10).
- (5) About 1,700 metres from Nombwe village (11).
- (6) About 1,700 metres from Kissitu village (12).

At this boundary pillar the boundary leaves the waterparting and goes in a straight line to a boundary pillar (13) about 1,200 metres northwest of the English Station Ikomba, and thence in a straight line to a boundary pillar (14) in the Suwa (Zuwa) Forest, about 3-1/2 kilom. south of Karimansira village, which is again on the waterparting; it then follows the waterparting past the following boundary pillars:-

- (1) About 700 metres west of Shovere (Chowere) village (15).
- (2) Dundunda Hill (16).
- (3) About half-way between Mambwe and Mssungu (17).

4, 5, 6. Three boundary pillars in the neighbourhood of the English Station Mambwe, which are marked on the map with the numbers 18, 19, and 20 in red. The last of these boundary pillars is at the same time the point of intersection of the waterparting with longitude 32 east of Greenwich, ascertained by the Commission. The boundary then goes in a straight line to the source of the Massiëte (Mashete) Stream and follows this downstream to its junction with the Masia Stream (21); it runs then in a straight line to a boundary pillar on the left bank of the Ipundu (22) south of the ruins of Ipundu village and then on a straight line to the junction of the Saissi (Saisi) River with the Kassokorwa (Kasokolwa) Stream [now considered part of Saisi] (23); it follows the Saissi upstream to its junction with the Rumi (Lumi) Stream, it follows the Rumi upwards to its junction with the Mkumbaw Stream [Nkumba], and follows this up to its source. Hence the boundary goes in a straight line to the middle of the narrow saddle between the sources of the Mosi (Mosi) and Kipoko (Chipoko) Stream, and from there in a straight line to the south-east source of the Safu (Samfu) Stream; this it follows down-stream until it runs into the Kalambo and then the latter down-stream to its mouth in the Tanganyika Lake.

The segment of the Tanzania - Zambia boundary in Lake Tanganyika commonly is drawn on maps as an arc which trends southwestward and then northward to attain the median line of the lake as rapidly as possible after leaving the mouth of the Kalambo. The Congo tripoint should be shown as the intersection of the median line of Lake Tanganyika and a straight line drawn southwestward to the shore of the lake at about $8^{\circ} 15'$ S. latitude and thence to the right bank of the Luvua on Lake Mweru. The Congo - Zambia boundary between Lake Tanganyika and Lake Mweru should be indicated as indefinite.

IV. PRESENT SITUATION

There are no known active disputes on the Tanzania - Zambia boundary at the present time. However, the exact location of the Congo tripoint remains unresolved because of the indefinite status of the Congo - Zambia boundary between Lake Tanganyika and Lake Mweru.



APPENDIX

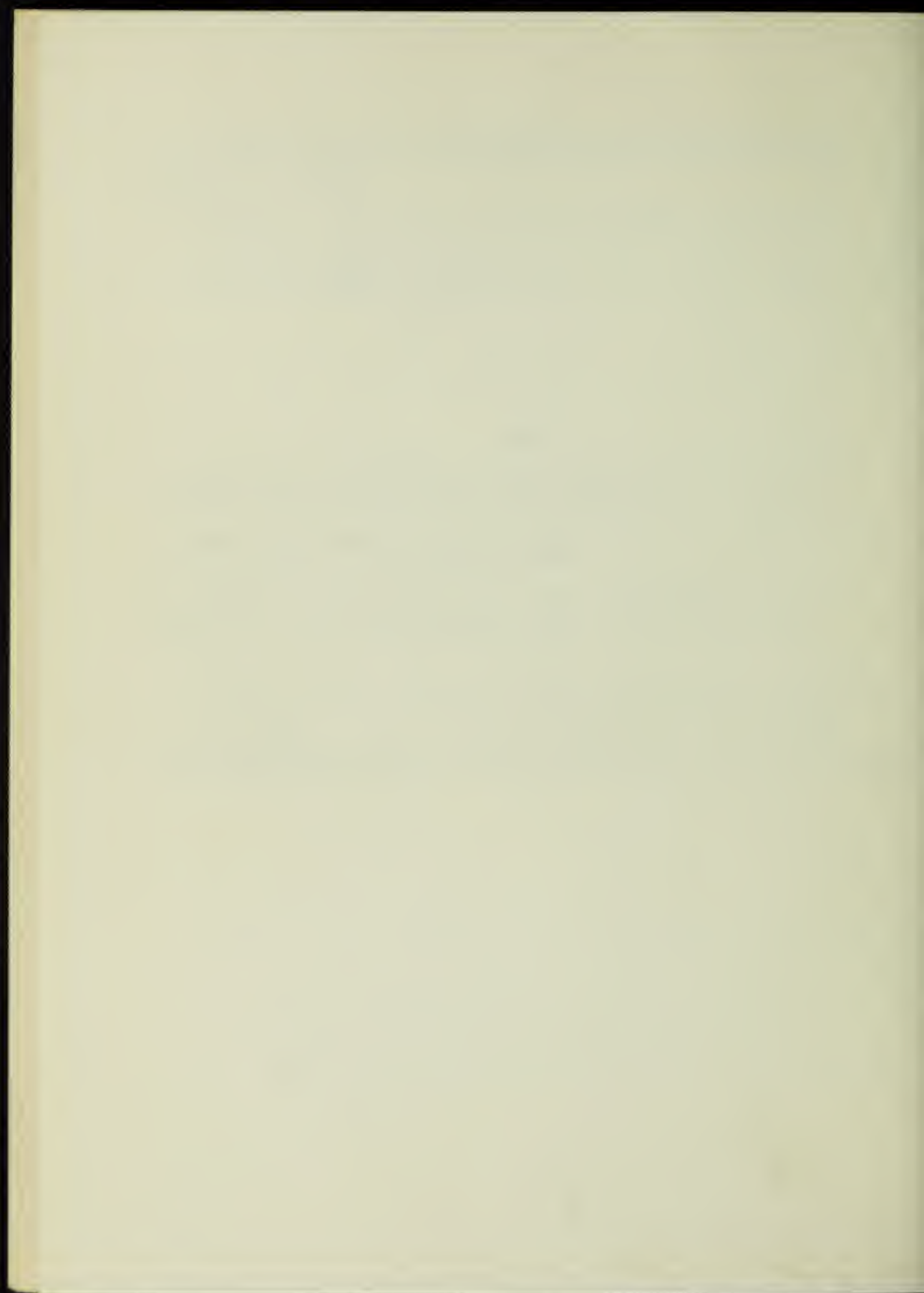
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4. Protocol containing the decisions of the Commissioners appointed to delimit the Nyasa-Tanganyika Boundary; Ikawa, November 11, 1891. Ibid., Vol. 3, pp. 916-919.
5. Agreement between Great Britain and His Majesty King Léopold II, Sovereign of the Independent State of the Congo, relating to the Spheres of Influence of Great Britain and the Independent State of the Congo in East and Central Africa. Brussels, May 12, 1894. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 578-580.
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map 1-10

International Boundary Study

NO. 45 - March 15, 1965

INDONESIA-MALAYSIA BOUNDARY

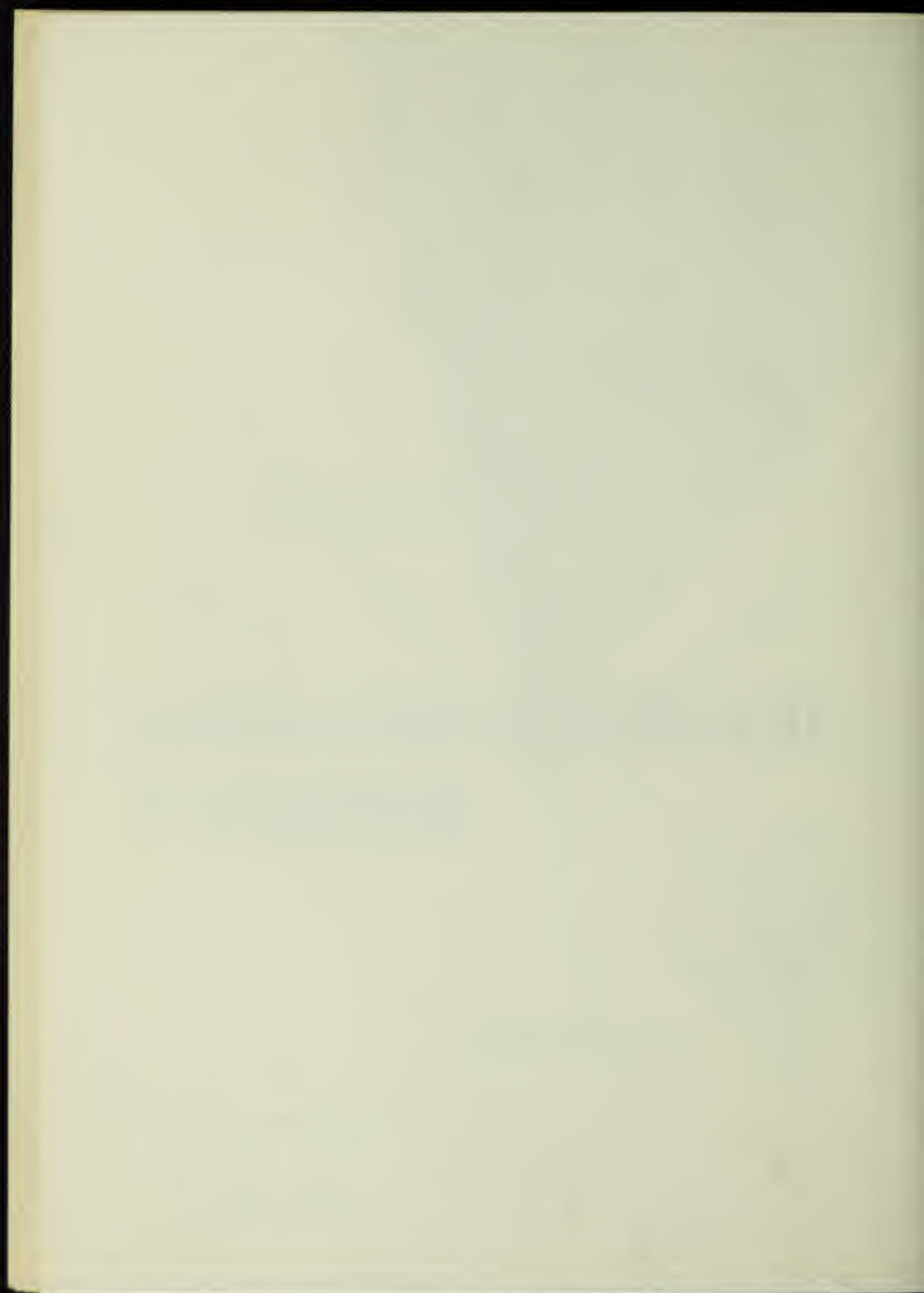


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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

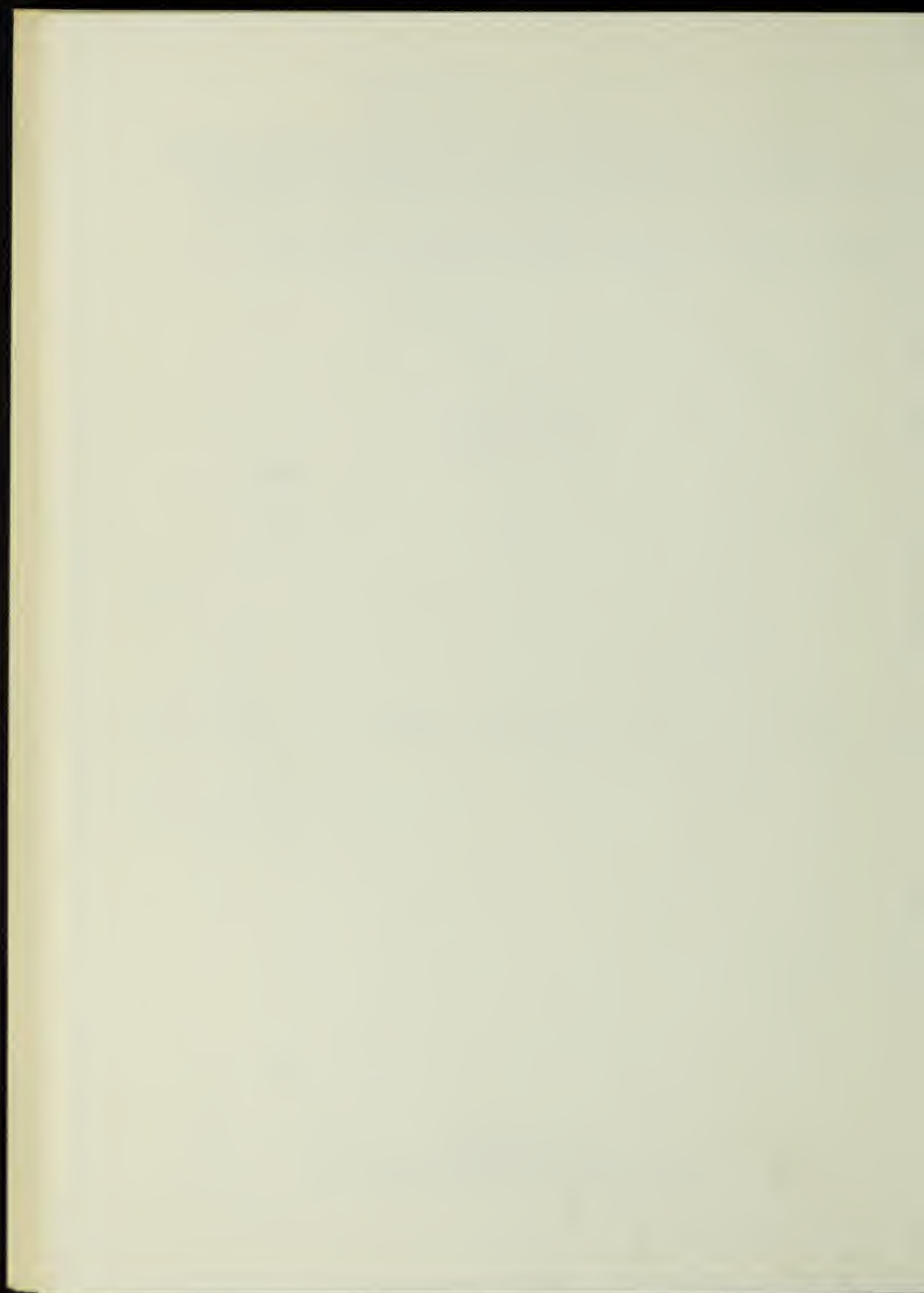
No. 45

Indonesia - Malaysia Boundary

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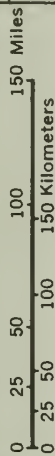
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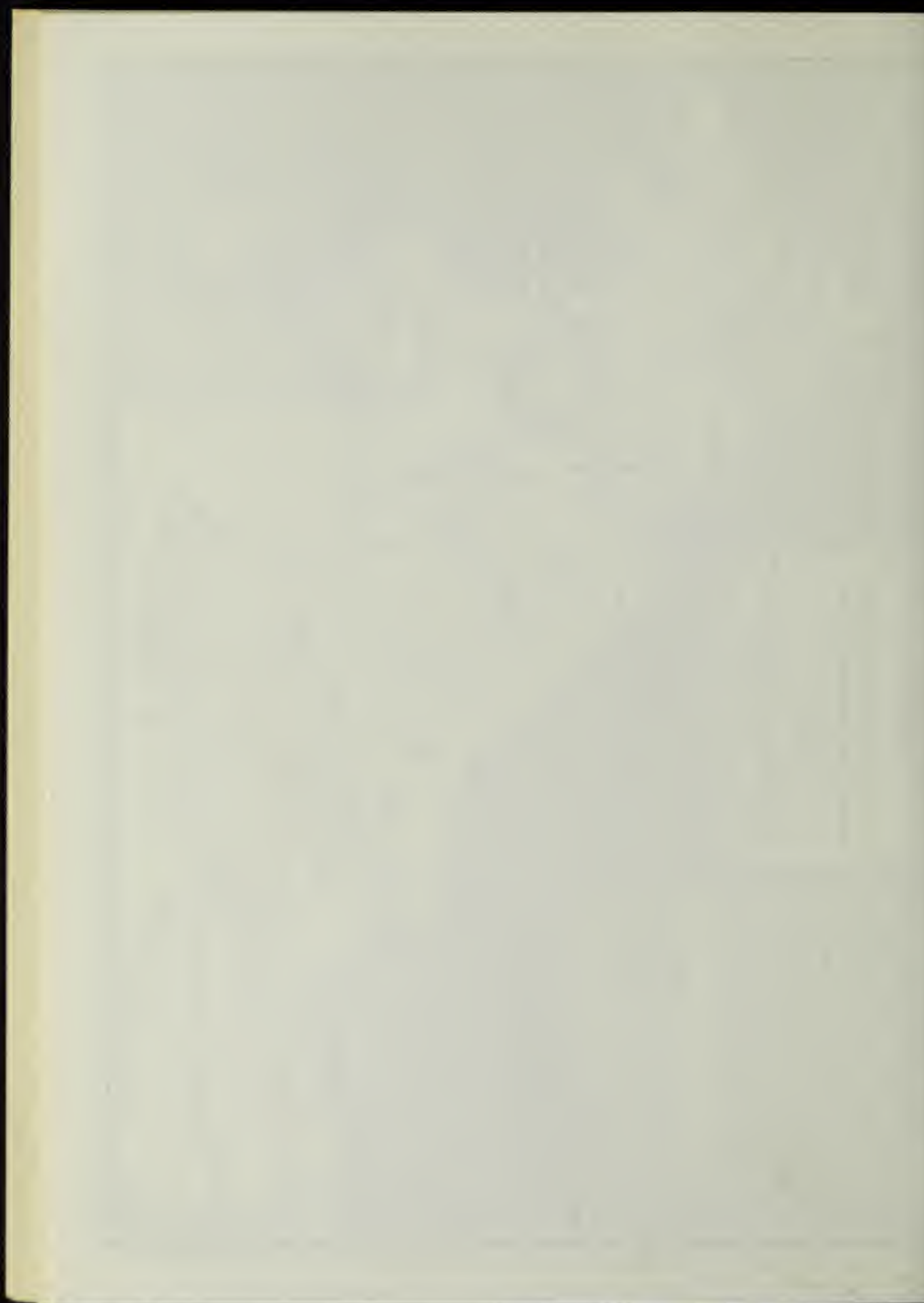
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INDONESIA-MALAYSIA BOUNDARY
BORNEO

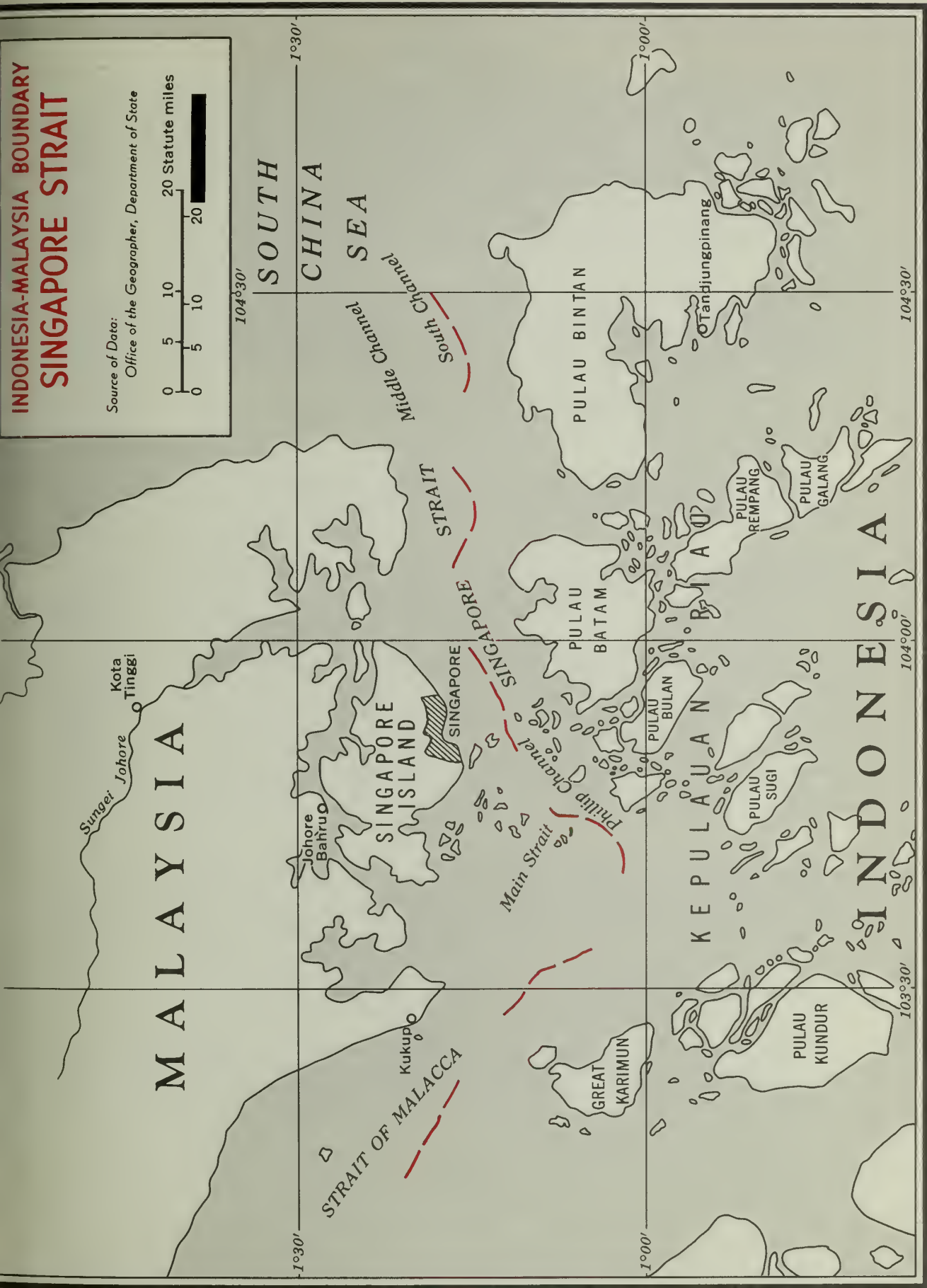
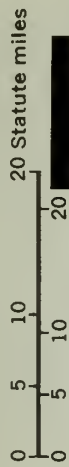
The remaining parts of Indonesia and Malaysia are separated by the water bodies of the Strait of Malacca, the Strait of Singapore, and the South China Sea. A line of separation or sovereignty may be drawn in these waters to divide the territories of the two states but the symbol utilized should not be that of an international boundary.

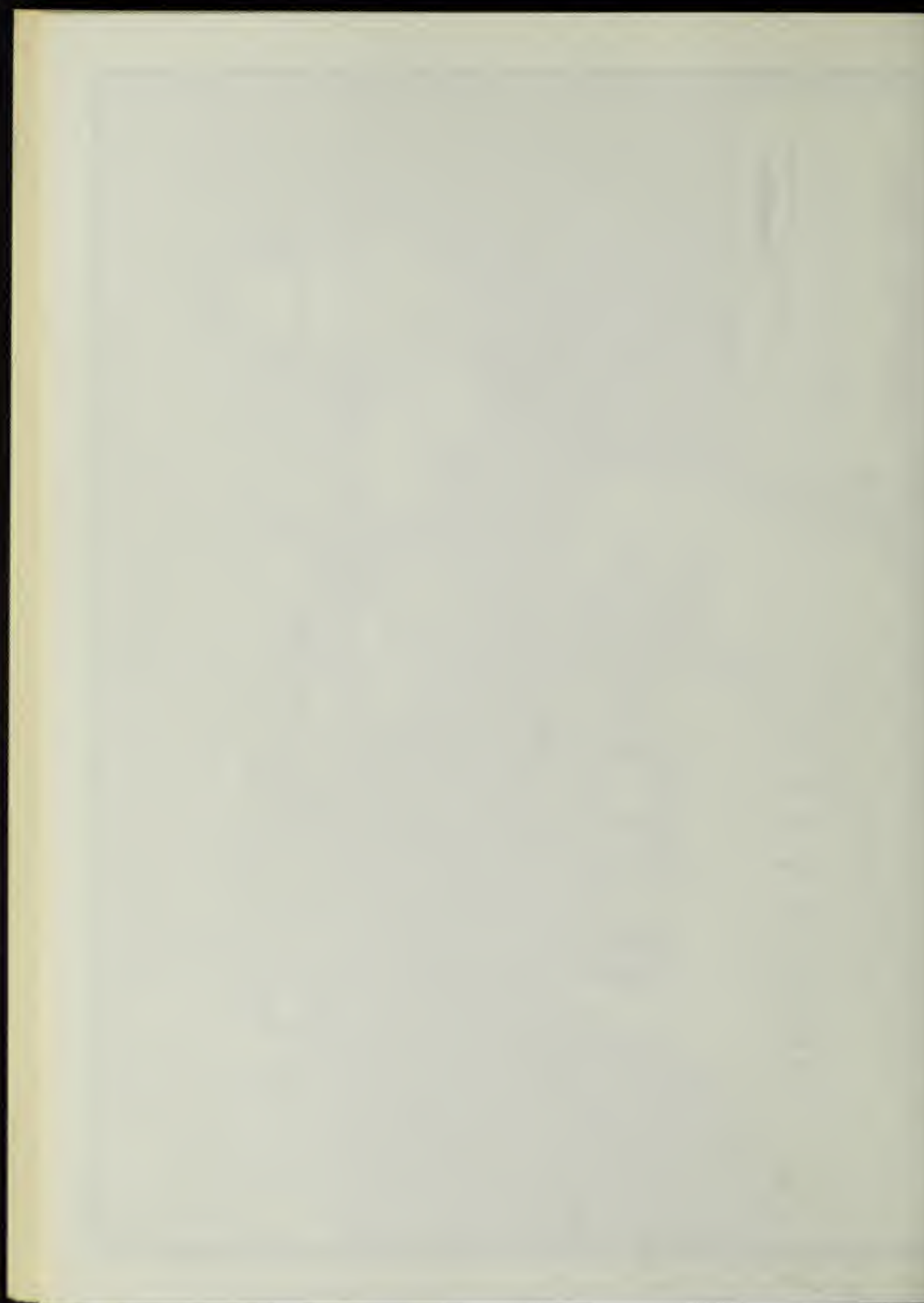




INDONESIA-MALAYSIA BOUNDARY
SINGAPORE STRAIT

Source of Data:
Office of the Geographer, Department of State





INDONESIA - MALAYSIA BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The terrestrial boundary between Indonesia and Malaysia is limited to the island of Borneo, separating the Indonesian regions of Kalimantan Barat and Kalimantan Timur from the Malaysian states of Sarawak and Sabah. The boundary, which measures approximately 1,107 miles in length, was delimited by Anglo-Dutch agreements negotiated during the pre-independence period. Two small sectors have been demarcated, one along Sabah, where several streams are crossed by the border and the second southwest of Kuching where several small rivers form the frontier. Elsewhere, the frontier is marked only by the mountain ranges which form the major and minor water divides chosen as the boundary.

The remainder of Indonesia and Malaysia are separated by the water bodies of the Strait of Malacca, including the Strait of Singapore, and the South China Sea. A line of separation of sovereignty may be drawn to divide the territories of the two states but the symbol utilized should not be that of an international boundary.

II. GEOGRAPHICAL BACKGROUND

A. Physical

Borneo, the third largest island in the world, is almost bisected by the equator. The name, Borneo, appears to be a corruption of Brunei, the designation of the sultanate which dominated the island at the time of its discovery by Europeans.

The northern third of the island is occupied by the Malaysian states of Sarawak and Sabah (North Borneo) and the British-protected state of Brunei. The southern two-thirds forms that part of the Republic of Indonesia referred to as Kalimantan.

The frontier region is primarily an area of low folded mountains, which are aligned generally east-west. Local relief varies with underlying rock formation but is usually gentle. Elevations along the frontier vary from several thousand feet to 7,084 feet at Moerod peak near the tripoint of Sabah-Sarawak-Kalimantan Indonesian Borneo. The Bawang range, which forms the western sector of the frontier, is low and discontinuous. The major break in the range occurs between the headwaters of the Sadong and Kapoeas rivers southeast of Kuching. A secondary break occurs along the coastal region to the west, providing easy access from the Sambas River to the Sarawak River.

In the central region, the mountains are composed of a series of parallel ridges and valleys forming a continuous belt. The inner range consists mostly of granite, while the flanking ridges are of sandstone or slate. The igneous core has gentle slopes and rounded peaks while the sandstone and slate ridges are characterized by deeply eroded valleys and relatively steeper slopes.

To the east, elevations decrease to the shores of the Celebes Sea, other than for a narrow coastal plain which remains unbroken.

Climatically, Borneo is tropical. The lowlands are very hot and humid, with slight seasonal variations in temperature. The average annual temperature is approximately 80° F. An increase in elevation

affects temperature slightly but it does bring relief from the excess but it does bring relief from the excess humidity of the lowlands. Probably no place on the island receives less than 100 inches of rainfall annually, while exposed ranges and their flanks may have as much as 200 inches. No true dry season exists although rainfall is greater in one season or another depending upon exposure to the monsoons and their seasonal pattern.

As a consequence of the high temperature and high rainfall, vegetation growth is rank. The dominant pattern is the evergreen, tropical rain forest in the interior and the mangrove swamp along the sea and river shores. Taller trees reach heights of 200 feet or more. Climbing plants are common as are jungle growths along the streams and clearing. The general picture is one of continuous and monotonous forest coverage. At approximately 3,000 feet elevation and above, however, a dwarf alpine type of vegetation grows.

B. Socio-economic

Borneo has a sparse population in comparison with the neighboring islands of Java, Celebes and Sumatra. Major concentrations occur along the coast, particularly at the mouth of the important rivers. The valleys themselves form secondary areas of settlement, although the inland penetration is not deep except along the west coast. The interior of the island is virtually uninhabited except for the upper courses of the Sadoeng and Kapoeas rivers.

The coastal peoples are primarily Malays from Java and Sumatra, Chinese who migrated in early times to work the gold fields of the Sambas, and Sea Dyaks. The Chinese have concentrated in the predominantly Malay urban centers since the depletion of the gold veins, while the Dyaks and other Malays make up the rural settlers. With few exceptions, agriculture remains as a basis of subsistence, depending upon rice and associated crops. Some coconuts, spices (pepper), and rubber are grown commercially on plantations, but a shortage of labor has limited commercial development. A greater problem, however, is the basic infertility of the soils. The high temperature and great rainfall produce a rapid and continuous leaching of the minerals. The residual soil is a nearly sterile laterite.

In contrast to Java and Sumatra, Borneo has had no active volcanoes to revitalize the soil with ash or lava. Only where alluvium exists are the soils considered even moderately productive.

The peoples of the interior consist of a collection of various aboriginal races, many of whom have only recently abandoned the time-honored practice of head-hunting. They exist primarily in a tribal economy based upon subsistence agriculture, collecting, and hunting. They usually live in long houses which they periodically abandon as the soil is depleted.

C. Historical

While Borneo was first visited by Europeans during Magellan's circumnavigation, early efforts to settle the island were unsuccessful. The Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch, and English all endeavored in various ways to tap the suspected riches of the soil, but the warlike character of the natives and the rigors of the climate combined to thwart their schemes. The Dutch established a factory at Bandjermasin on the south coast in 1603 but abandoned it four years later when the local populace

murdered the employees. A second effort in 1635 also ended unsuccessfully within three years. In 1698, Dutch aided in the establishment of a sympathetic rajah at Bantam (Java) which gave them, for a brief period, limited but successful trade with his Borneo territories. Additional attempts made in the following century produced marginal benefits but increasing costs and poor returns led the Dutch government to order the abandonment of the settlements in 1797.

Official Dutch thinking concerning Borneo related it to Java. The island represented an outpost of Javanese influence which was useful to supplement trade and to protect the main settlement. Thus the adjacent south coast had the most appeal. The British, on the other hand, thought of Borneo as a station on the trade route between India and China. In the days of sailing vessels, the route to China during the southwest monsoon utilized the Strait of Malacca and the South China Sea west of Borneo. However, during the northeast monsoon (October to April) this route became impractical and ships were forced to pass south and then east of Borneo. Even with the advent of steam navigation, the British retained the thoughts of Borneo as a strong point on the route's flanks. As a consequence, the most important part of the island to them was the north coast, with its spacious and relatively protected harbors.

During the Napoleonic Wars, the British defeated the Dutch naval forces in several engagements and occupied the Netherlands' holdings in the East Indies. Without the threat of Dutch competition, a serious effort was exerted toward the creation of factories in Borneo but with little success. The lack of cooperation by the native princes and the shortage of available labor doomed the attempts to failure. By the terms of the Convention of 1814, the British East India Company returned the management of the East Indies to the Netherlands. The Dutch immediately undertook a campaign to reestablish their former claims to Borneo and other outlying islands. The Sultanate of Bandjermasin immediately accepted Dutch protection. The sultan also ceded full sovereignty to "... Tatas, Kween, all of the Dayak provinces, the districts of Mendawai, Sampit, and Kota Waringin with all their dependencies, together with Sintang, Lawai and Djelai, Bakoempai, Tabanio, and Patagan, with Poeloe Laoet, Pasir, Koetei, Berouw, and all their dependencies." With the granting to the Dutch of this vast tract of territory, British holdings established on the south coast of Borneo during the occupation period ceased to exist.

As the Dutch gained control in south Borneo, the sultanates of Sambas and Pontianak on the west coast requested Dutch protection. These requests appear to have been motivated as much by the desire to escape the depredations of the unruly Chinese settlements at Sambas and the activities of coastal pirates as the realization of Dutch primacy in the island. However, the Dutch were soon forced to abandon territory again in 1825 as a consequence of the Javanese rebellion. After the return of peace, the Dutch followed the same general policy of extending protection and sovereignty to the native principalities. In contrast to Java, however, the amount of interest shown was very slight. The principal concern, at first, appeared to be aimed at the elimination of claims by other states.

The first permanent British foothold on Borneo was gained by James Brooke, who later gained fame as the White Rajah of Sarawak. In 1839 Brooke arrived in the area on a private exploring expedition. His help in putting down a local rebellion was requested by the government of

Brunei. On this occasion, however, Brooke did not accede to the request and continued with his expedition. The next year, when he returned to Kuching, the government again sought his services and he accepted. For his help in ending the revolt, Brooke in 1842 became the sovereign ruler of Sarawak between Tandjung Datu and the mouth of the Sadong River.

The Netherlands, at first, objected to Brooke's holdings but, after the British Government stated that it had no official interest in Sarawak, they soon tolerated his activities. Each time that Sarawak increased its territory, however, the original Dutch nervousness returned. The Dutch also watched with suspicion official British naval support given Brooke in his efforts to end the piratical raids of the Dyaks. To offset this growing British sultan, the Dutch began to expand their influence along the entire east coast, signing protection agreements with the sultanates of Koetei, Pasir, Boeloengan, Goenong Taboer and Sambalioeng. The British had also negotiated agreements with several of the same sultans but the home government never ratified them.

In 1847, Great Britain negotiated a treaty with the Sultan of Brunei, partially at the urging of Brooke, for a British settlement on the island of Labuan. Reluctantly in 1850, the Netherlands concluded that the fact of British occupation of northern Borneo must be accepted, and they redoubled their efforts elsewhere. Nine years later, the Sultanate of Bandjermasin rose in revolt against the Dutch and full peace was not restored until 1867. The sultanate was declared to have lapsed in 1860 and, from then on, the Dutch ruled the dominions directly. For the next decade the Java Government consolidated its hold on the south and west coast of the island, the territories of Bandjermasin.

In the meantime, the territory of Sarawak continued to expand at the expense of the nearly impotent Sultanate of Brunei. By 1853, the eastern boundary was at the Rajang, in 1861 at the Bintulu, and in 1882 at the Baram. The last of the cessions, annexations or purchases were (a) the Trusan in 1884, (b) the Limbang in 1890, and (c) the Lawas in 1904-05.

To the north, during this same period, the Spanish were endeavoring to terminate a long conflict with the Sultan of Sulu. The sultanate had been declared under Spanish sovereignty as early as 1638. However, as the Dutch learned, the mere declaration without occupation was a fruitless activity. In 1851, the sultan agreed to adhere to the sovereignty of the Spanish throne and to end the piratical acts which flourished in his domain. Sulu, at this time, had hereditary sovereign rights to the northeast coast of North Borneo from Boeloengan to Marudu Bay and over the northwest coast as far as Pandasan. Since the Sulu piracy had not ended, the Spanish in 1873 established a blockade over the sultanate which led to violent protests from British traders at Singapore. An assault on the capital city of Jolo, however, led to the capitulation of the sultanate in 1878.

In the waning period of Sulu sovereignty, outside interest developed in North Borneo. An American company and later a Scot endeavored to establish commercial depots without success. In 1875, an Austrian named Overbeck purchased the North Borneo leases of the American Trading Company. He later joined with a wealthy and influential Englishman, Alfred Dent, and in 1877 they renegotiated the agreements with the Sultan of Brunei for the territory between Kimanis Bay and the Seboekoe River on the east. In exchange for an annual payment, the two obtained full sovereignty over the territory of modern-day Sabah. Knowing of the rights and claims of the Sultan of Sulu, they then negotiated a similar cession with him. The territory between the rivers Pandasan in the west and Seboekoe in the east,

for an annual tribute of \$5,000, was ceded on January 22, 1878, six months before the final Spanish conquest of the Sultanate. With the 30,000 square-mile territory firmly in hand, contractually at least, the two men sought some form of protection from a European power. The Austrian government refused support and Overbeck promptly withdrew from the company in 1879. The British Government, however, granted protection in 1881 by issuing a royal charter to the newly-incorporated North Borneo Company in spite of protests of the Netherlands Government. Spanish claims were settled by the protocol of March 7, 1885 which recognized Spain's sovereignty over the Sulu archipelago in exchange for a relinquishment of claims to the mainland territories.

The British and Dutch soon realized that a boundary had to be drawn between their respective spheres and territories if serious incidents were to be avoided. A commission created in 1889 examined the terrain and the documents and recommended a boundary which was legalized by the convention of 1891. This delimitation essentially represented a compromise between the extreme claims of the two powers. As more geographical information was gained in time, the original boundary delimitation was amended in 1915 and again in 1928 to make it conform to reality.

D. Political

During the second World War, Borneo was completely overrun by Japanese military forces and occupied until the final months of the conflict. Considerable damage was done to the facilities and economy during the initial occupation and as a result of Allied bombings. As a consequence, the Rajah of Sarawak and the British North Borneo Company realized that they did not have the resources to repair the war-ravaged economy of the two states. In due course, Sarawak and North Borneo passed to the British Government as colonies on July 1, 1946 and July 15, 1946, respectively.

Nationalists in the Dutch East Indies had declared their independence of the Netherlands as early as August 17, 1945. It was not until December 28, 1949, however, that the newly-independent Republic of Indonesia replaced the Dutch on the southern side of the frontier. Finally, on September 16, 1963, the State of Singapore, the Colony of Sarawak, and the Colony of North Borneo (now renamed Sabah) joined with the independent Federation of Malaya to form Malaysia.

The proposed union of Sarawak and Sabah with Malaya led to Indonesian protests and a request for assurance that the peoples of Borneo desired the federation. An impartial United Nations commission visited the two colonies to talk with various elements of the population and on September 14, 1963, the U.N. Secretary-General declared that a sizeable majority favored Malaysia. However, the Indonesian Government has not accepted the fact of union nor the Secretary-General's report. Guerilla operations originating from Indonesian territory have occurred along the frontier and landings have even been made on the Malayan peninsula. In the meantime, the Philippines have entered reservations to Sabah's inclusion based upon the former sovereign rights of the Sultanate of Sulu. No specific territorial limits have been mentioned publicly for the Philippine reservations but they presumably would equate with the Sulu grant to Overbeck and Dent.

Speeches of Indonesian officials have called for independent states of Sarawak and Sabah, free from association with Malaysia. Indonesia officially makes no claim for either state or for any portion of their territory. The Indonesian "confrontation" policy has become more fixed within the past several months culminating in the state's withdrawal from the United Nations to protest Malaysia's election to the Security Council.

III. ANALYSIS OF TERRESTRIAL BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The boundary starts on the east coast at latitude $4^{\circ} 10'$ N. After the island of Sebatik is divided, the boundary crosses the waters between the island and the mainland in a sinuous line following the median of the Tamboe and Sikapal channels to the Sikapal range which forms the water divide between the Serudong and Simengaris rivers. The water divide is followed generally westward to $116^{\circ} 49.9'$ E. where the Seboeda River is crossed. Mounting the minor water divides, the boundary continues westward to $116^{\circ} 42.7'$ E. where the Agisan River, a tributary of the Seboekoe, is also intersected. In a like manner, the boundary meanders westward to $116^{\circ} 26.2'$ E. where the Pantjiangan River, an upper course of the Sembakoeng, is also crossed. The intersections of these three rivers with the boundary are marked with pillars. Continuing westward, the boundary intersects the Sesai River at approximately $116^{\circ} 09'$ E. All four of these intersections take place along the parallel of latitude $4^{\circ} 20'$ as specified in the original Anglo-Dutch treaty.

From the last-named river crossing, the boundary mounts the ridge line which constitutes the major water divide and this feature serves as the border for approximately 800 miles. In places, knowledge of the precise location of the divide is rather scanty.

Southwest of Kuching, the water divide is abandoned between the peaks of Api and Raja. Over a straight line distance of 13.6 miles between the peaks the boundary follows a complicated course utilizing straight lines, foot paths, streams, water divides, and a crest line. The boundary, where it follows a stream, has been defined as the right bank of the specific stream. Pillars, either of wood or concrete, mark the major turning points. The stretch along the boundary measures approximately 19.75 miles.

On the peak of Api mountain, the boundary returns to the water divide for an additional 78 miles northwestward and then northward to the South China Sea at Tandjung Datu.

IV. TREATIES AND OTHER ACTS

Listed below are the treaties and other international acts which created the present international boundary between Indonesia and Malaysia. All but one of the treaties relate to the boundary on the island of Borneo. The sole exception allocates islands in the Strait of Singapore.

- A. Treaty regarding territory and commerce in the East Indies between Great Britain and the Netherlands signed in London on March 17, 1824
(British and Foreign State Papers, 11:194)

The intent of the treaty apparently was to divide the islands immediately to the north (British) and south (Dutch) of the Strait of Singapore. However, a differing interpretation by the Dutch soon developed. The specific language forbade the British (Article 12) to establish settlements in the "islands south of the Straits [sic] of Singapore." The interpretation of this rather loose language came to be that the British were excluded from all islands south of the latitude of the Strait. On this version rested much of the Dutch opposition to official British occupation on the island of Borneo.

- B. The London Convention of June 20, 1891 (Cmd. 6375; 1892)

The boundary line between British Borneo and Dutch Borneo was delimited by this act as starting from $4^{\circ} 10'$ north latitude on the

east coast (Article I) and continuing westward, so as to include the Simengaris River in Dutch territory, to 117° East and 4° 20' North (Article II). The water divide between the Simengaris and Soedang (Serudung) rivers was to be the boundary. The above-mentioned 4° 20' N. parallel would then become the boundary to the line of ridges which formed the main water divide further to the west. Should rivers cross the boundary, deviations within a five-mile strip could be made so as to include small portions or bends within Dutch territory if they emptied into the seas south of 4° 10' or within British territory if they met the sea north of this latitude (Article II). The remainder of the boundary was dealt with simply from the above-mentioned line of ridges--the boundary followed the main watershed of the principal rivers as far as Tandjong-Datoe (Tandjung Datu) on the west coast (Article III). Finally, Article IV divided the island of Sebittik (Sebatik) along the parallel of 4° 10' while agreeing that the exact positions of the boundary could be determined "hereafter by mutual agreement (Article V)."

C. Joint Commissioners Report signed at Tawao on February 17, 1913.

Due to the lack of specific knowledge of the geography of interior Borneo, certain difficulties soon arose over the 1891 delimitation. Invoking Article V of the convention, the two states created a joint commission to delimit the boundary in greater detail. The joint report, with map, became the basis of and was incorporated in the following agreement.

D. Agreement between the United Kingdom and the Netherlands relating to the boundary between the State of North Borneo and the Netherlands possessions in Borneo signed at London on September 28, 1915 (Cmd. 8105; 1915)

The technical report of the joint commissioners is accepted as the body of the Agreement along with the changes produced in the North Borneo (Sabah) - Dutch Borneo (Kalimantan Timur) boundary. Four boundary pillars were erected (all on the parallel of 4° 20' N.) where the Pentjiangan (2) River, the Agisan River (1), and the Seboeda River cross the boundary and an additional two (on the parallel of 4° 10' N.) on the west and east coasts of Sebatik (Sebittik) island. In the waters between the island and the coast, the commissions accepted the median line of the Troesan Tamboe and the Troesan Sikapal as the boundary to the water divide.

The report continues with a detailed description of the changes in the boundary. A 1:500,000 map with four insets, three at 1:50,000 and one at 1:100,000 form a part of the agreement. The map shows the boundary from the island to 115° 40' East (the peak of B. Padas). Coordinates for the boundary pillars are also on the map.

E. Convention between ... the United Kingdom and ... the Netherlands respecting the delimitation of the frontier between ... Borneo under British protection and Netherlands territory ... signed at The Hague, on March 26, 1928 (Cmd. 3671; 1930)

A minor alteration in the water divide principle is made between the peaks of Api (110° 04' E.) and Raja (109° 56' E.) to follow several small streams, paths, and straight line segments. A 1:50,000 map is appended to the convention. Markers were erected in this sector, 15 of wood and five of cement and wood.

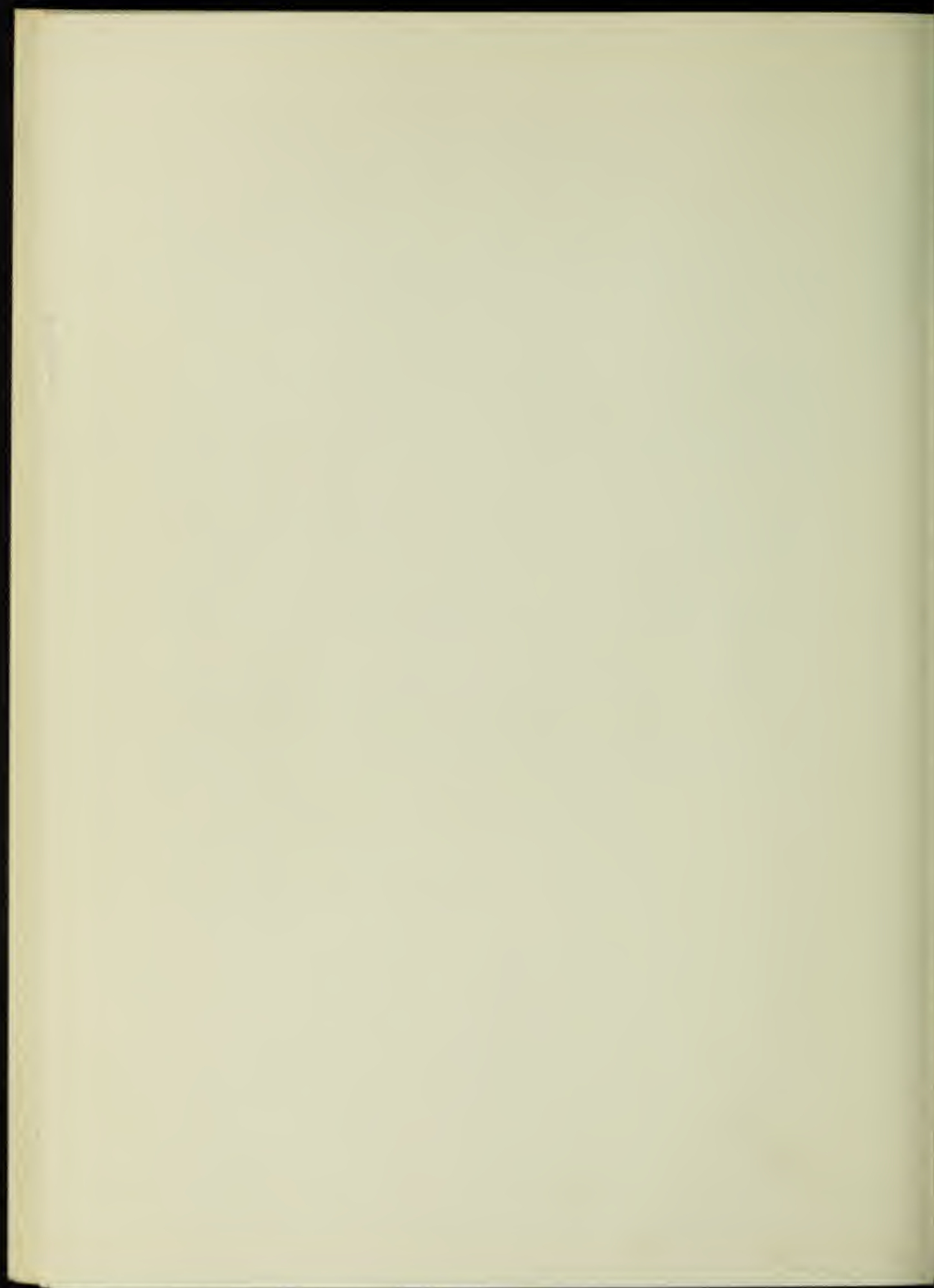
V. SUMMARY

The Indonesia - Malaysia boundary on the island of Borneo has been delimited by Anglo-Dutch international agreements negotiated in the pre-independence period. Two small sectors have been demarcated. No dispute is known to exist on the precise alignment of the boundary although Indonesia and the Philippines have expressed reservations over the incorporation of Sarawak and/or Sabah into Malaysia. The boundary, however, should be shown as international with no reference to the disputes. They are considered to be territorial rather than boundary disputes, per se.

The best source for the depiction of the terrestrial frontier between Sarawak and Kalimantan Barat is the British topographic series Sarawak 1:150,000 compiled and drawn by the Lands and Surveys Department of Sarawak. For the demarcated area covered by the 1928 Convention, the 1:50,000 map affixed to Command 2671 (1930) may be utilized. It should be recalled, however, that elsewhere the boundary follows the water divides according to the treaties. Should new data show the divides in altered position, the boundary must follow the new courses of the divides.

The map references for the Sabah - Kalimantan Timur boundary are poorer in quality. The best source is the map affixed to the 1915 agreement which has been described above. Acceptable substitutes are the International Map of the World (IMW) 1:1,000,000 sheet NA 50 and the British map of North Borneo (DOS 973) published by the Directorate of Overseas Surveys. No large-scale Indonesian maps are available of the boundary area but Dutch-published sources (of the pre-independence period) show the boundary essentially the same as do the cited British maps.

The water boundary between Indonesia and Malaysia should not be shown except in the narrow confines of the Strait of Singapore and adjacent waters. A theoretical median line has been constructed on Map No. 2 (attached) and it may be used by the cartographic agencies. However, the line of separation should not be shown, by a symbol, as an international boundary since there is no treaty justification for the position. Rather, the line is one of convenience for the cartographic separation of sovereignty.



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Map no

International Boundary Study

NO. 46 - APRIL 1, 1965

ISRAEL-UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC ARMISTICE LINE



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

No. 46

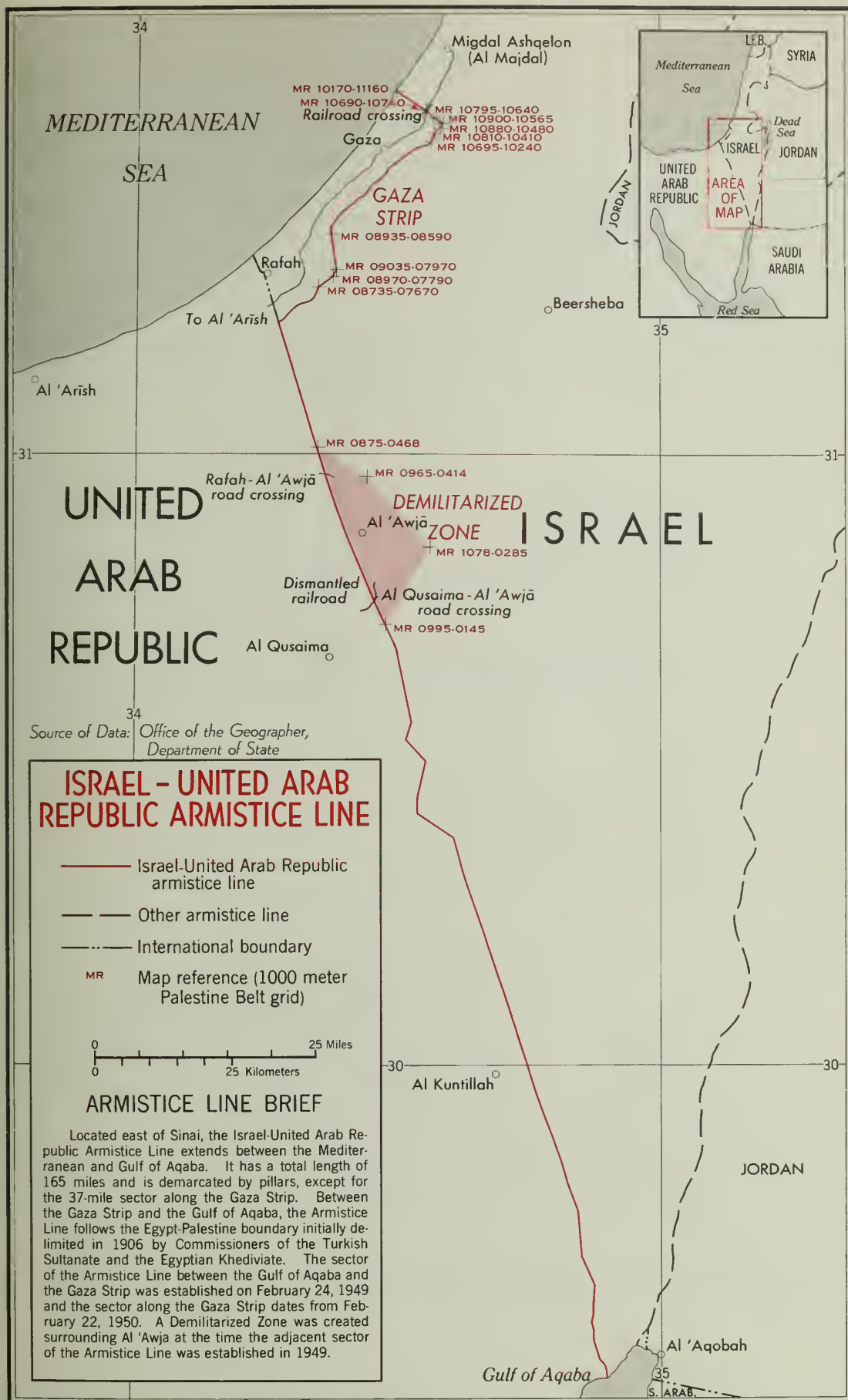
Israel - United Arab Republic Armistice Line

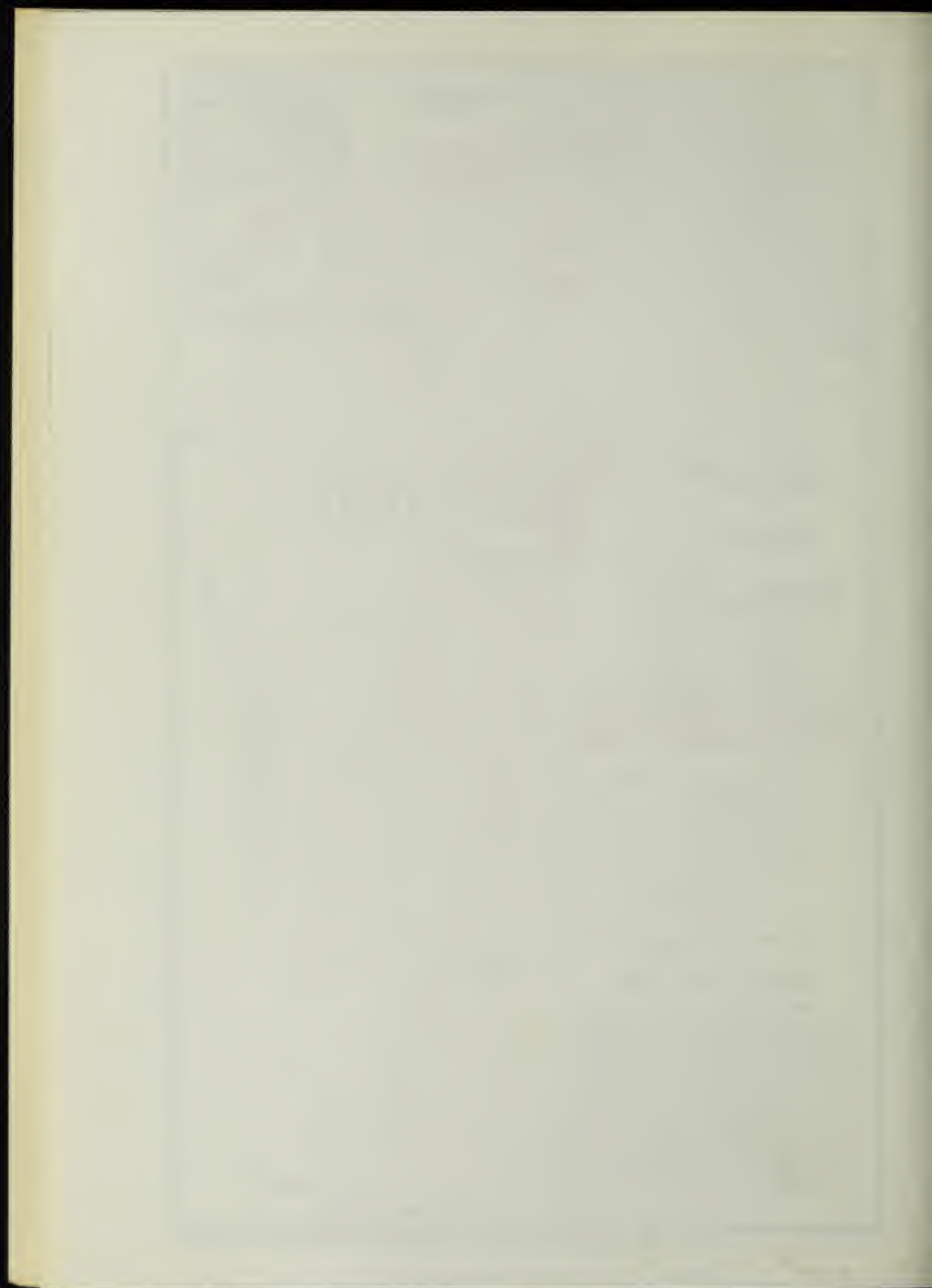
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Office of Research in Economics and Science
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ISRAEL - UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC ARMISTICE LINE

I. ARMISTICE LINE BRIEF

Located east of Sinai, the Israel - United Arab Republic armistice line extends between the Mediterranean and Gulf of Aqaba. It has a total length of 165 miles and is demarcated by pillars, except for the 37-mile sector along the Gaza Strip. Between the Gaza Strip and the Gulf of Aqaba, the armistice line follows the Egypt - Palestine boundary initially delimited in 1906 by Commissioners of the Turkish Sultanate and the Egyptian Khedivate. The sector of the armistice line between the Gulf of Aqaba and the Gaza Strip was established on February 24, 1949 and the sector along the Gaza Strip dates from February 22, 1950. A demilitarized zone was created surrounding Al 'Awjā at the time the adjacent sector to the armistice line was established in 1949.

II. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Israel - United Arab Republic (U.A.R.) armistice line is situated across the eastern approaches to the Isthmus of Suez which has served as a land bridge between Asia and Africa since historical times. The completion of the Suez Canal in 1869 joining the Mediterranean and Red Sea gave additional strategic importance to the Isthmus of Suez as a world crossroads. Egyptian sovereignty over the Sinai affords the U.A.R. control of the land on both sides of the Suez Canal and territory in two continents.

Prior to 1906 the boundary between Egyptian and Turkish territories in Sinai was indefinite. On October 1, 1906, an agreement was signed between the two states, which placed the boundary east of Sinai in a nearly straight line between the Mediterranean near Rafah and the head of the Gulf of Aqaba.

A number of maps printed before the agreement of 1906 showed the boundary as extending southeastward from the vicinity of Al 'Arish to the head of the Gulf of Aqaba. Although nominally a vassalage of the Turkish Empire in 1906, Egypt was in effect a United Kingdom protectorate under British occupation from 1882 to 1914. On May 8, 1892 a firman issued by the Sultan of Turkey granted to the Khedive Abbas of Egypt the right to administer Sinai, which right was reiterated in notes exchanged between the United Kingdom and Turkey in May 1906. Also, in 1892 a British unilateral declaration, to which Turkey did not respond, was made locating the boundary in a straight line from immediately east of Al 'Arish to the head of the Gulf of Aqaba. British policy at this time was twofold: 1) to keep Sinai under Egyptian administration as a wasteland buffer for protection of the Suez Canal and 2) to secure the Gulf of Aqaba against use by unfriendly states that might threaten the water route to India. In 1906 before the treaty was signed, Turkey claimed a boundary comprised of straight-line sectors from a short distance west of Al 'Arish to Suez and thence to the head of the Gulf of Aqaba. Also an alternate Turkish proposal was made that the boundary consist of a straight line from a point a short distance west of Al 'Arish to Ra 's Muhammad on the tip of Sinai. The British viewpoint prevailed and a line was adopted similar to that of the declaration of 1892, although the entire boundary was shifted slightly eastward. A reason given for shifting the line eastward was based on historical precedence because boundary pillars had been located in Rafah since the Middle Ages.

Officially declared a British protectorate on December 18, 1914, Egypt was granted independence by the United Kingdom on January 28, 1922.

The eastern boundary of Egypt was not explicitly delimited either at the time of independence or by the Treaty of Lausanne on July 24, 1923.¹ By the terms of the treaty, Turkey renounced all rights and titles to territories lying outside of her immediate boundaries. Since independence Egypt has exercised sovereignty in Sinai. Following World War I the League of Nations approved a Palestine mandate to be administered by the United Kingdom for the part of the former Turkish Empire adjacent to Sinai. The line established by the Turco-Egyptian agreement of 1906 was afforded the status of an international boundary by both the United Kingdom and Egypt between the mandate of Palestine and Egyptian Sinai.

Historically Palestine has ranged widely in geographical extent and in administrative divisions. In accordance with the agreement of 1906 the territory adjacent to Sinai was called the vilayet of Hejaz and the governorate of Jerusalem. Prior to United Kingdom administration, Turkish administrative divisions in Palestine commonly were considered to include the independent sanjak of Jerusalem and parts of the vilayets of Beirut and Damascus. The United Kingdom mandate for Palestine was approved by the League of Nations in July 1922 and became effective as of September 29, 1923. The mandate included the Trans-Jordan area, and in May 1923 the United Kingdom announced that it would recognize the existence of a separate government in Trans-Jordan under the Amir Abdallah. This was formalized five years later by the United Kingdom-Trans-Jordan agreement of February 20, 1928, the ratifications of which were exchanged on October 31, 1929.

After World War II the newly organized United Nations voted on November 29, 1947, to partition Palestine into Jewish and Arab states by October 1, 1948. The partition to which Jewish representatives apparently had acquiesced, would have placed Palestinian territory along the northern part of the Egypt-Palestine boundary within a new Arab state and that along the southern part within the new Jewish state. The State of Israel was proclaimed on May 15, 1948, and British administration of the Palestine mandate ended. Immediately following independence hostilities started between Israel and the adjacent Arab States of Egypt, Jordan, Syria, and Lebanon. In the ensuing conflict, Egyptian military forces were engaged with Israeli armed forces in the vicinity of Gaza and south of Jerusalem along with Jordanian troops.

A General Armistice Agreement was signed by Egypt and Israel under the auspices of the United Nations at Rhodes on February 24, 1949. Egypt retained control of the area now known as the Gaza Strip, and a Demilitarized Zone was established about Al 'Awjā. On February 22, 1950, a modus vivendi to the General Armistice Agreement clarified the armistice line delimiting the Gaza Strip. The remainder of the armistice line followed the Egypt-Palestine boundary between the Gulf of Aqaba and the Gaza Strip to within about eight miles of the Mediterranean. Following a series of political maneuverings and armistice line incidents, Israeli military forces invaded the Egyptian Sinai on October 29, 1956 and remained for a short time before returning to the armistice line previously agreed upon.

On February 22, 1958, Egypt was united with Syria to form the United Arab Republic. Syria withdrew from the union on September 28, 1961, but the Egypt region has retained the terminology of the United Arab Republic as the official name of the state.

¹ The treaty went into effect on August 6, 1924.

III. POLITICO-GEOGRAPHIC SETTING

Most of the Israel-U.A.R. armistice line traverses arid or semi-arid wastelands. Sparse water supplies are typical of most areas and many wells are brackish. Natural vegetation consists mainly of broad-leaved deciduous shrubs and some short grasses. Limited cropland is utilized primarily for citrus groves and grain fields.

The armistice line crosses steep slopes adjacent to the Gulf of Aqaba, which is part of the Great Rift valley that includes the Dead Sea and the Red Sea, and then passes northward alternately through hill lands and relatively level areas. Steep flat-topped hills are common, and some have elevations in excess of 3,000 feet. The relatively level areas usually are dissected by wadies and are covered by sand or gravel deposits. In the vicinity of Al 'Awjā dunes are common. Northward of Al 'Awjā elevations decrease rapidly to the sandy coastal plain of the Mediterranean.

Climatically the southern part of the armistice line is located in a low-latitude desert and the northern part in a dry subtropical or Mediterranean type. Except for the Gaza Strip, most of the remainder of the area receives less than five inches of precipitation annually. From south to north the Gaza Strip receives annually between 8 and 15 inches of precipitation which falls almost entirely in the winter months. Temperatures remain continuously hot throughout the year in the low-latitude desert, and although summer temperatures in the dry subtropical climate are hot, the winters are quite mild.

Although the principal activity along much of the armistice line continues to be nomadic herding, a number of relatively recent population changes have taken place. Israel has developed Eilat as a modern port on the Gulf of Aqaba, and a number of Israeli settlements have been established in the Negev. In the Gaza Strip the population has increased from an estimated 72,000 persons in 1946 to more than 400,000 people in 1964. Of the total population about 290,000 were registered as Palestinian Arab refugees.

The Gaza Strip is a part of the Mediterranean coastal plain less than 30 miles in length and between four and eight miles wide. It has an area of 140 square miles and is administered by the U.A.R. through an Egyptian Governor-General. Although only 40 miles from the Israeli urban area of Tel Aviv, through transportation and telecommunications the Gaza Strip is oriented to the U.A.R. and is virtually isolated from Israel. There is no port for cargo transfer and vessels are offloaded into lighters. Limited water supplies place severe restrictions on the production of irrigated crops and the ability of the area to support the large refugee population. At present about 60 percent of the Gaza Strip is under cultivation, of which about 15,000 acres are under irrigation. Oranges are the main export crop but various other crops are grown for local consumption. Because the economy of the Gaza Strip is unable to cope with the increased population, the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) assists in the support of the refugees.

IV. BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The sector of the armistice line between the Gulf of Aqaba and the Gaza Strip follows the Egypt - Palestine boundary delimited in 1906. Through specifically delimiting the Gaza Strip and determining a demilitarized zone by reference to the Egyptian frontier of 1906, the General

Armistice Agreement in effect designates this sector of the Egypt - Palestine boundary as an armistice line. The Egypt - Palestine boundary was surveyed and demarcated by pillars between 1912-14.² The following delimitation of the Egypt - Palestine boundary is quoted from the Turco-Egyptian agreement of 1906.

Art. I. The Administrative Separating Line, as shown on map attached to this Agreement, begins at the point of Ras Taba, on the western shore of the Gulf of Akaba, and follows along the eastern ridge overlooking Wadi Taba to the top of Jebel Fort; from thence the Separating Line extends by straight lines as follows:

From Jebel Fort to a point not exceeding 200 metres to the east of the top of Jebel Fathi Pasha, thence to that point which is formed by the intersection of a prolongation of this line with a perpendicular line drawn from a point 200 metres measured from the top of Jebel Fathi Pasha along the line drawn from the centre of the top of that hill to Mofrak Point (the Mofrak is the junction of the Gaza-Akaba and Nekhl-Akaba roads). From this point of intersection to the hill east of and overlooking Thamilet-el-Radadi (place where there is water), so that the Thamila (or water) remains west of the line; thence to top of Ras Radadi, marked on the above-mentioned map as A 3; thence to top of Jebel Safra, marked as A 4; thence to top of eastern peak of Um Guf, marked as A 5; thence to that point marked as A 7, north of Thamilet Sueilma; thence to that point marked as 8, on the west-north-west of Jebel Semaui; thence to top of hill west-north-west of Bir Maghara (which is the well in the northern branch of the Wadi Ma Yein, leaving that well east of the Separating Line); from thence to A 9 bis west of Jebel Megrah; from thence to Ras-el-Ain, marked A 10 bis; from thence to a point on Jebel-um-Hawawit, marked as A 11; ...³

The armistice line then extends from Jebel-um-Hawawit, A 11, in a straight line for about 25 miles to the Gaza Strip. Prior to establishing the Gaza Strip the alignment of the straight line was determined as extending from Jebel-um-Hawawit to half the distance between two pillars at Rafah.

An initial armistice line delimiting the northern and eastern sides of the Gaza Strip based verbatim on the U.N. Memorandum of November 13, 1948 was included in the General Armistice Agreement of 1949. Paragraph 1, Article VI of the General Armistice Agreement reads as follows:

² Sheets listed in map reference No. 1 of the Appendix show the location of the boundary pillars.

³ The remainder of the agreement of 1906, including that part which now forms the southern boundary of the Gaza Strip is as follows: "... from thence to half distance between two pillars (which pillars are marked at A 13) under a tree 390 metres south-west of Bir Rafah; it then runs in a straight line at a bearing of 280° of the magnetic north (viz., 80° to the west) to a point on a sand-hill measured 420 metres in a straight line from the above-mentioned pillars; thence in a straight line at a bearing of 334° of the magnetic north (viz., 26° to the west) to the Mediterranean Sea, passing over hill of ruins of the seashore."

1. In the GAZA-RAFAH area the Armistice Demarcation Line shall be as delineated in paragraph 2.B (1) of the Memorandum of 13 November 1948 on the implementation of the Security Council resolution of 4 November 1948, namely by a line from the coast at the mouth of the Wadi Hasi in an easterly direction through Deir Suneid and across the Gaza-Al Majdal Highway to a point 3 kilometres east of the Highway, then in a southerly direction parallel to the Gaza-Al Madjal Highway, and continuing thus to the Egyptian frontier.

On February 22, 1950, a modus vivendi to the General Armistice modified the northern part of the Gaza Strip demarcation line and the eastern part opposite Khan Yunis. Except where the modifications were delineated, the armistice line remained parallel to and three kilometers eastward of the Gaza-Al Majdal Highway in accordance with the General Armistice Agreement. Following the Sinai campaign of 1956, a furrow was plowed to mark the armistice line between Israel and the Gaza Strip. Paragraph I, Article I of the modus vivendi indicates the modifications to the armistice line as follows.⁴

Article I

1. In the map^{1/} attached to the modus vivendi.

(a) the "A" zone is delineated as follows:

It is the zone between the demarcation line and a line from M.R. 10170-11160 in a straight line to point M.R. 10690-10740 at the railway crossing and then in a straight line to point M.R. 10795-10640, to point 72,9 M.R. 10900-10565, to point 95,7 M.R. 10880-10480, to point 82,2 M.R. 10810-10410 and then to the demarcation line at point 95,1 M.R. 10695-10240 (all points inclusive to Egyptian side).

(b) the "B" zone is delineated as follows:

It is the zone between the line delineated in paragraph (a) above and the Egyptian fighting line north of Reit Lahaya.

(c) the "C" zone is delineated as follows:

It is the zone between the demarcation line and a line from point M.R. 08935-08590 in a straight line to point 79,6 M.R. 09035-07970, M.R. 08970-07790 and from this point to the demarcation line at M.R. 08735-07670 (all points inclusive to Egyptian side).

^{1/} Note by the Secretariat: The attached map consists of two sheets, with zones "A" and "B" appearing on Sheet 1, and zone "C" on Sheet 2.

⁴ Map references (MR) along the armistice line are based on the 1,000 meter Palestine belt grid. United States Army Map Service sheets listed in the map appendix show, in addition to the universal transverse mercator grid, the Palestine belt grid and geographic coordinates by ticks along the margins of the maps. Points referenced along the boundary indicate elevations in meters.

In accordance with the General Armistice Agreement, an area adjacent to the armistice line and surrounding Al 'Awjā was declared a Demilitarized Zone. Al 'Awjā is strategically situated astride routes between the Gulf of Aqaba and the Mediterranean and between the Sinai of Egypt and the Negev of Israel. Paragraphs 1 and 2, Article VIII of the General Armistice Agreement afford the following details on the delimitation of the Demilitarized Zone.

1. The area comprising the village of El Auja and vicinity, as defined in paragraph 2 of this Article, shall be demilitarized, and both Egyptian and Israeli armed forces shall be totally excluded therefrom. The Chairman of the Mixed Armistice Commission established in Article X of this Agreement and United Nations Observers attached to the Commission shall be responsible for ensuring the full implementation of this provision.

2. The area thus demilitarized shall be as follows: From a point on the Egypt-Palestine frontier five (5) kilometres north-west of the intersection of the Rafah-El Auja road and the frontier (MR 08750468), south-east to Khashm El Mamdud (MR 09650414), thence south-east to Hill 405 (MR 10780285), thence south-west to a point on the Egypt-Palestine frontier five (5) kilometres south-east of the intersection of the old railway tracks and the frontier (MR 09950145), thence returning north-west along the Egypt-Palestine frontier to the point of origin.

V. PRESENT SITUATION

In lieu of a peace treaty, an armistice line supervised by the United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) continues to separate the areas administered by Israel and the U.A.R. That it was not the intent of the General Armistice Agreement to influence the location of an international boundary between the two states by establishing an armistice line is indicated in Paragraph 2, Article V as follows:

The Armistice Demarcation Line is not to be construed in any sense as a political or territorial boundary, and is delineated without prejudice to rights, claims and positions of either Party to the Armistice as regards ultimate settlement of the Palestine question.

In addition to the problem of determining an international boundary, ultimately decisions will be needed on the ownership of the Gaza Strip, disposition of the large Arab refugee population in the Gaza Strip, and the status of the Demilitarized Zone around Al 'Awjā.

For purposes of cartographic presentation, only the boundary between the U.A.R. and the Gaza Strip should be shown by an international symbol. A special symbol is required for the armistice line and the labeling of the sectors by date of origin is unnecessary. The Gaza Strip is to be indicated as under U.A.R. administration. Still a different symbol should be used east of the armistice line to delimit the Demilitarized Zone. An alternative would be to indicate the zone by a distinctive pattern. The Demilitarized Zone should be labeled on the map.

APPENDIX

DOCUMENTS

1. Agreement signed and exchanged at Rafah on October 1, 1906 between the Commissioners of the Turkish Sultanate and the Commissioners of the Egyptian Khedivate, concerning the fixing of a Separating Administrative Line between the Vilayet of Hejaz and Governate of Jerusalem and the Sinai Peninsula. Triepel, Heinrich, Nouveau Recueil Général De Traités (Continuation Du Grand Recueil De G. Fr. De Martens), Troisième Série, Tome V, (Leipzig: Librairie Dieterich, 1912) pp. 882-884.

2. Egyptian-Israeli General Armistice Agreement, United Nations Document S/1264/ Rev. 1, 13 December 1949.

3. Modus Vivendi To the Egyptian-Israeli General Armistice Agreement (S/1264/ Rev. 1) Signed at El Auja on 22 February 1950, United Nations Document S/1471, 1950, Maps of Ascalon and Khan Yunis.

MAPS

1. Sinai Peninsula: Africa 1:125,000; Geographical Section, General Staff (GSGS) No. 2230; published 1915 by War Office, United Kingdom; map sheets Wadi Jerafi (North H-36/Q II), El Mayein (North H-36/K IV), Abda (North H-36/K II), El Kossaima (North H-36/K I), and Rafa (North H-36, E III).

2. Israel: Series K736, 1:50,000; published 1960 by United States Army Map Service; sheets Gaza (2853 II), Ashqelon (2953 III), Talmei Bilu (2952 IV), and Khan Yunis (2852 I).

3. Egypt: Series P677, 1:100,000; published 1960 by United States Army Map Service; sheets Gaza (6188), Khan Yunis (6187), El-Qusaima (6186), Eilat (6284), and W. Watfir (6283).

4. Israel: Series K632, 1:100,000; published 1960-61 by United States Army Map Service; sheets Beersheba (2952), Makhtesh Ramon (2951), and Har Sagi (2950).

5. Egypt: Northern Sinai, 1:100,000; published 1941-42 by the Royal Engineers, United Kingdom; sheets Rafah (3), El Qusaima (6), Bir El Ma 'Ein (10), El Kuntilla (14), and Ras El Naqb (18).

6. Armistice Line: Maps attached to S/1471, Modus Vivendi To the Egyptian-Israeli General Armistice Agreement; U.N. Presentation 1690 (b)-x; Map No. 264 (b)-x (Sheets 1 and 2), Scale 1:20,000, March 1950.





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map 2-10

International Boundary Study

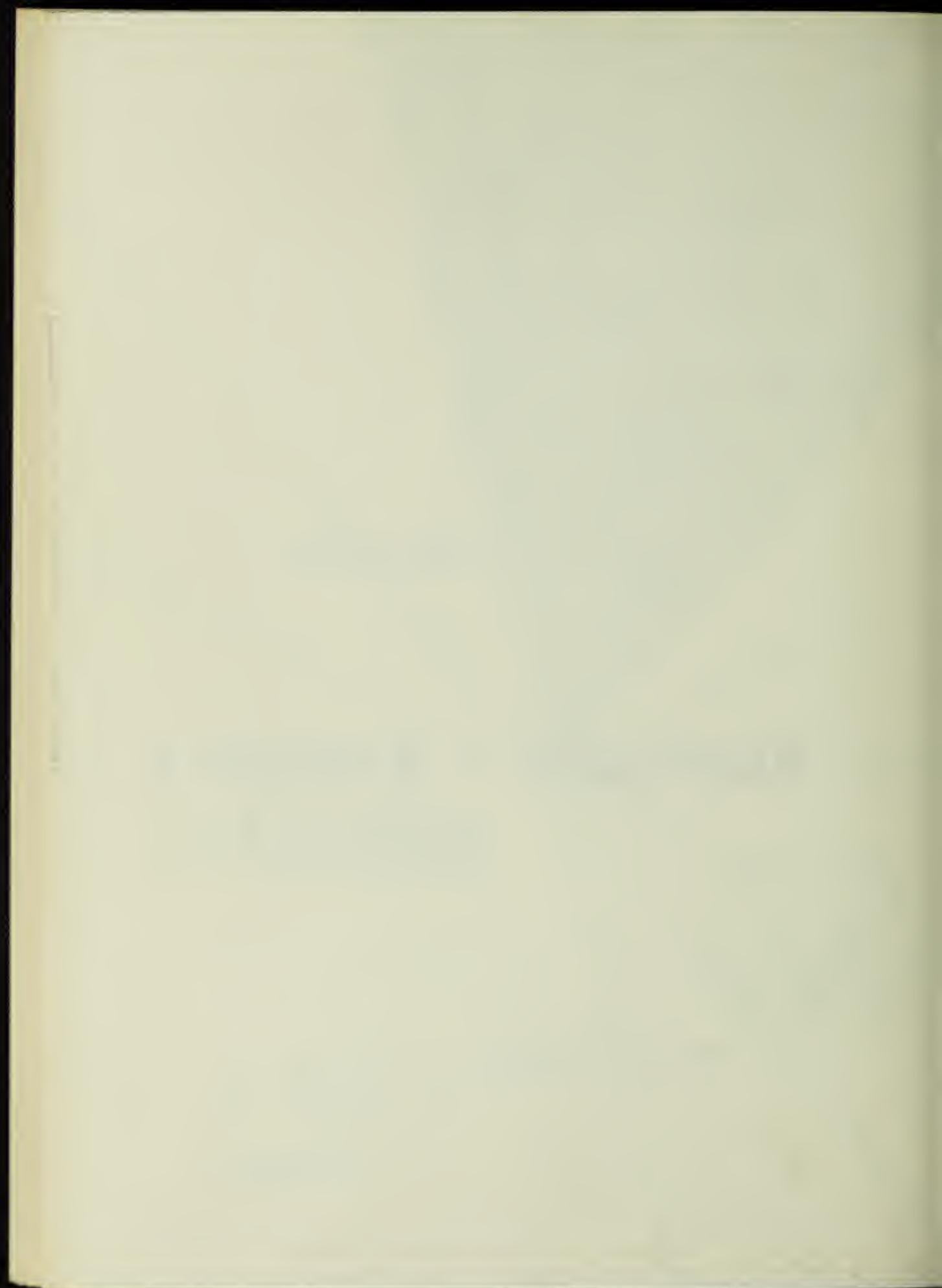
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HUNGARY – RUMANIA BOUNDARY



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

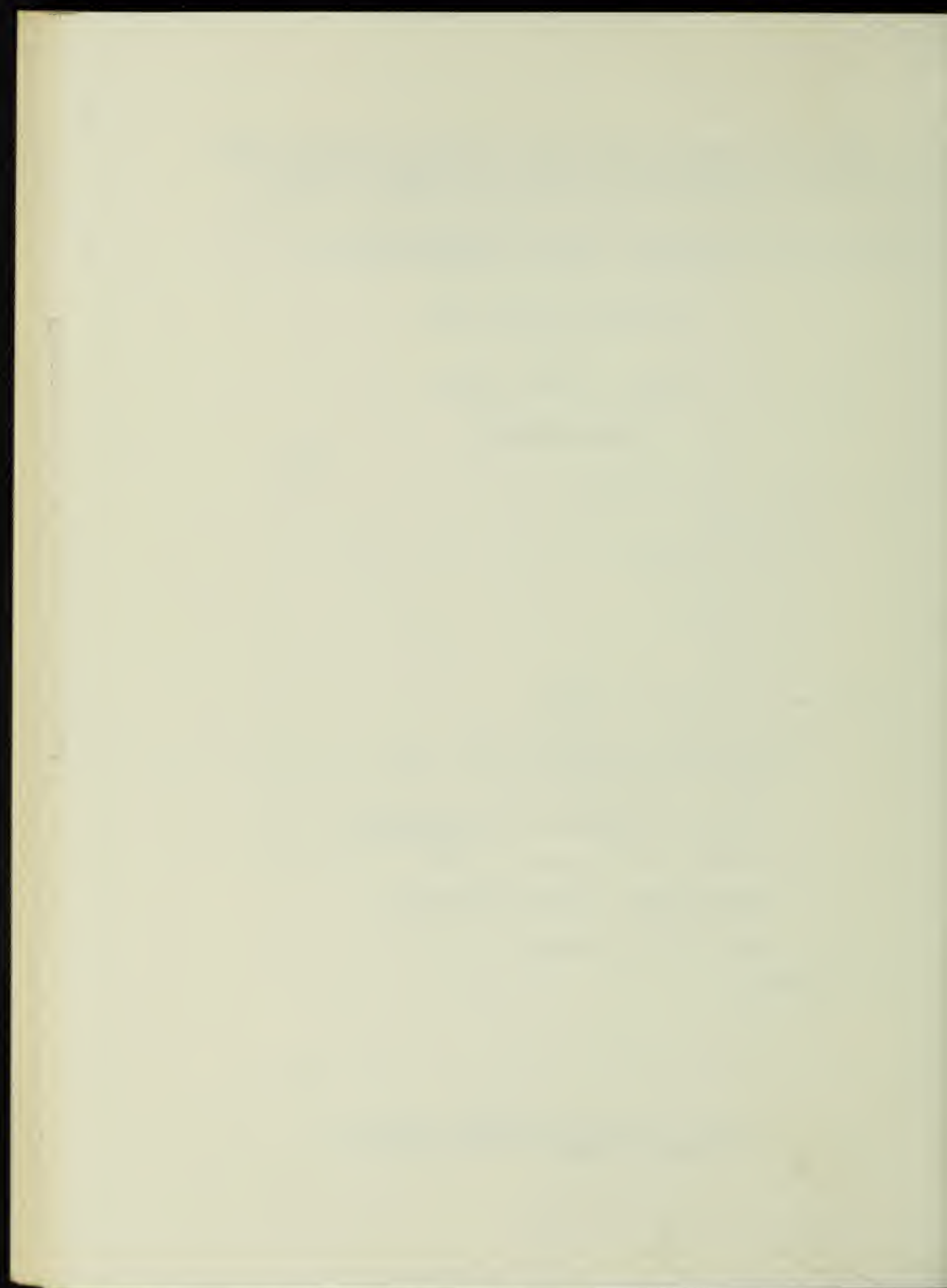
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Hungary - Rumania Boundary

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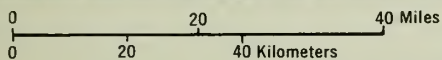
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HUNGARY-RUMANIA BOUNDARY

- Hungary-Rumania boundary
- - - Other international boundary

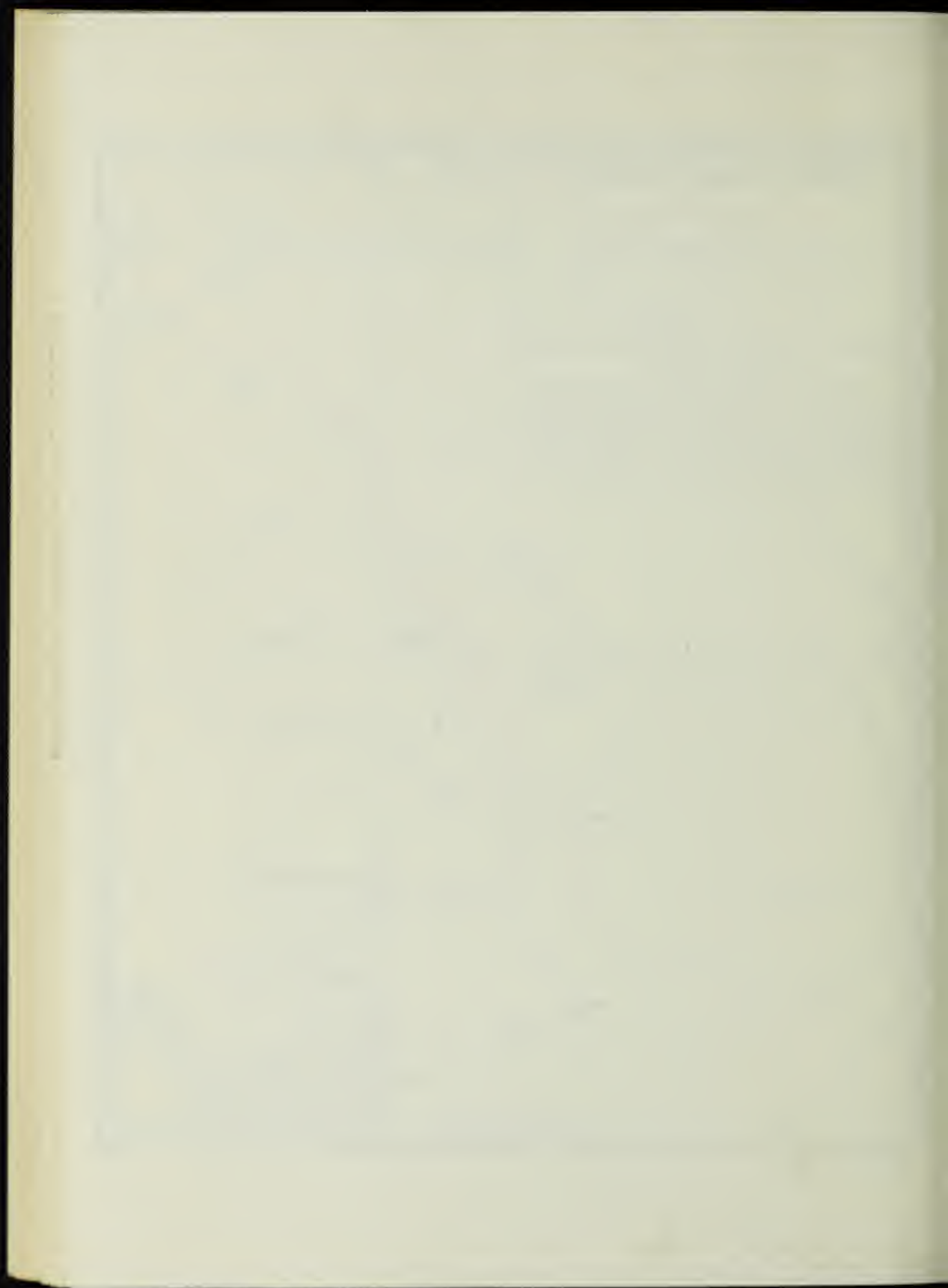
Source of Data: Office of the Geographer, Department of State.



BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Hungary-Rumania boundary is demarcated for its entire length of 275 miles by pillars and approximately 12 miles of the Maros (Mureşul) River. The boundary exists today essentially as created by the treaties ending World War I. No active disputes over the precise alignment of the boundary are known.





HUNGARY - RUMANIA BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Hungary - Rumania boundary is demarcated for its entire length of 275 miles by pillars and approximately 12 miles of the Maros (Mureşul) River. The boundary exists today essentially as created by the treaties ending World War I.

No active disputes over the precise alignment of the boundary are known.

II. GEOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

A. Physical

From the U.S.S.R. tripoint in the north, the Hungary - Rumania boundary extends southwestward through the eastern margins of the Pannonian Plain to the Yugoslav tripoint in the Banat of Temesvar. The plain, which dominates the physical landscape from the Alps eastward to the Bihor Mountains and the Transylvanian Basin in Rumania, constitutes one of the most uniform physiographic regions in Europe: approximately 40,000 square miles of almost monotonously flat land drained by the Danube and Tisza rivers and their tributaries. However, in the frontier region east and south of Debrecen, sand dune formations straddle the border. These northwest-southeast oriented dunes, which extend a mere 100 feet above the normal elevation of the plain, have become fixed by afforestation. The river valleys of the Tisza and its tributaries, in contrast, lie less than 30 feet below the general plain level.

The drainage pattern of these streams is aligned generally east-west. The rivers flow from the Bihor-Transylvanian highlands eastward to the Tisza and thence to the Danube. Because of the lack of relief, much of the region is subject to periodic inundation without extensive flood control. Swamps and marshes are extensive along the various streams although many have been drained in recent times.

The climate of the Pannonian Plain is strongly influenced by the maritime Atlantic, the Mediterranean, and the continental interior. Summers are very hot and humid; three months have average temperatures over 70° F. During the three winter months average temperatures remain below freezing. The average seasonal range of temperature is approximately 46° F.; the absolute range is much greater being one of the highest in Europe. In the summer, Mediterranean influences extend northward as far as the Carpathians and induce the clear, sunny but relatively rainless weather. In a similar manner, winter is dominated by the clear, cold continental climate from the east. The spring and fall, as a consequence, tend to be the period of greatest precipitation although no month usually has less than an inch of rain. The total precipitation varies considerably with exposure, but Szeged which is quite typical of the region, received 21.5 inches annually. The border region, thus, is marginal in its rainfall and droughts seriously affect agricultural production.

The Hungary - Rumania frontier is primarily a densely settled agricultural region. As a consequence, the natural vegetation has all but been obliterated by the spread of human occupance. In the sand areas to the north, forests have been planted to stabilize the dunes. A few areas of marsh and swamp also exist in the poorly drained river bottoms. Inside

Rumania, the Bihor Mountains have extensive areas of forest with deciduous trees on the lower slopes and conifers on the higher elevations. The few isolated areas extending above the tree line have a true alpine vegetation.

B. Historical

After the collapse of Roman authority at the end of the third century in the lower Danube, the area of modern Rumania and Hungary, suffered from a prolonged series of invasions from the East. It is likely that elements of the mixed Daco-Roman population held out in Transylvania or in the adjoining mountain fastness. Successive waves of Goths, Gepidae, Huns, Avars, Bulgars, Petchenegs, Magyars, and Slavs swept through the region. In the latter half of the ninth century, the Finno-Ugrian peoples known as the Magyars, combined with certain allied Turkic tribes, arrived in the Danube delta region. The Magyars moved westward into the Pannonian basin, a grassy region ideally suited to their nomadic existence. In the next century, the Magyars and their allies raided from Italy to France until dealt a crushing defeat by the Germans near Augsburg. The nomads withdrew to the Pannonian basin, abandoned their nomadic existence, and over the next century established the Hungarian kingdom. By 1,000, Hungary extended from Austria on the west, southward to the Drava River, eastward along it to the Danube as far as the Iron Gates before turning northeastward and then northwestward along the outer rim of the Carpathian Mountains. Within the next century, Hungary had expanded southward through the Banat of Temesvar as far as Belgrade and southwestward to the Adriatic.

The Magyars tended to settle in the lowlands of Pannonia and of central Transylvania while the defeated and subject tribes occupied the mountains which rimmed the plains. In the middle of the thirteenth century, the invading Mongols ravaged the lower Danube, depopulating entire districts. To escape the deprecations, Wallachian (Rumanian) settlers moved into the mountain fastness of the Carpathians. The rulers of Hungary also established programs of colonization in eastern and southern Hungary. Saxon Germans, Szeklers (a Magyarized Turkic people), Slavs, and Wallachians settled in the peripheral areas which had suffered so greatly from the Mongols. The Saxons and Szeklers soon formed self-governing groups within the Hungarian kingdom, while the Wallachians and Slavs became the peasants and herders. The newly-formed Rumanian principalities came, for a brief period, under Hungarian domination, as did Dalmatia and Serbia.

However, the Turks soon expanded into the lower Balkans. In 1526, Turkish armies ravaged the Pannonian basin and Transylvania became, in essence, an independent state. Over the next century and a half, Hungary was partitioned by Austria and Turkey on several occasions. The Turks ravaged the southern and central portions rendering it virtually uninhabited. The Magyars, abandoning the countryside, sought refuge in the fortified cities and, as a consequence, displaced Serbs, Croats, Slovenes, and Rumanians began to settle in the depopulated rural areas. However, the forces of the sultan were eventually defeated at the gates of Vienna and by 1699 all of Hungary, except for the Banat of Temesvar, had been liberated.

Hungary, however, came under the Austrian Habsburg crown and remained so in one form or another until the end of World War I. The Habsburgs, while recognizing Hungarian sovereignty over Transylvania, practised a policy of separating it from the main state. Additional Germans settled in the principality under official colonization schemes and a large number of Rumanians, fleeing the Turkish rule in their own principalities, also

moved in to occupy vacant lands. As a consequence of the Turkish occupation and the Habsburg colonization policies, Transylvania underwent a great change in ethnic composition. It has been estimated that before the Turkish conquest the Magyars constituted about three-quarters of the population. By 1800, however, they had fallen to less than half of the total and their relative position continued to decline into the middle of the century.

In the 1840s, the multi-national Habsburg empire was shaken by demands for autonomy by the various minority elements. The Magyars led in the demands placed on the crown. Finally in 1867, Hungary gained full equality within the newly-created dual monarchy. Transylvania and other frontier territories reverted to full Hungarian control. While the new constitution guaranteed minority rights within Austria-Hungary, Transylvania was soon dominated by a Magyar racial policy and the de-Magyarization trend was reversed. A Rumanian nationalist movement, however, soon developed as a result of this pressure and the appeal of the new Rumanian state.

The defeat of the Central Powers in the First World War was followed in Eastern Europe by a period of chaos. Nationality councils, created by local groups, demanded separation from the Austro-Hungarian empire as independent states or in union with neighboring states. The breakup of the Habsburg empire became a fundamental condition of the peace settlement and Hungary, which possessed almost the same boundaries as had existed in 1000, faced dismemberment.

The 1920 Treaty of Trianon reduced Hungary to 32.9% of its pre-war area and 41.6% of its pre-war population. Segments were transferred to Austria (1.4%), Czechoslovakia (21.8%), Yugoslavia (7.5%) and Rumania (36.2%). The Rumanian acquisition included all of Transylvania, Crişana, Maramureş, about two-thirds of the Banat of Temesvar and a thin strip of the Pannonian basin proper. Over 1,670,000 Magyars came under Rumanian administration.

The Hungarian nation and people argued, for the next two decades that the terms of the treaty had been too harsh. Among other factors, they claimed that 1) false population figures were cited for the lost territories; 2) Wilson's Fourteen Points were ignored; 3) the Allied Powers would not grant the right of plebescite to the areas; 4) a large percentage of the lost population lived in zones contiguous to Hungary and could have been included in the nation with minor variations in the boundary; and 5) the promised revisions, which could have been made by the joint boundary commission, were never considered.

In contrast, the proponents of the treaty insisted that 1) the Hungarian census figures were heavily weighed in favor of the Magyars; 2) strategic considerations were as important as ethnic factors; 3) the ethnic picture was so complex that no purely ethnic boundary could be drawn; 4) the local nationality councils represented the will of the people in their desire to be separated from the Austro-Hungarian empire, rendering plebescites unnecessary; and 5) the boundaries were established by technically competent experts.

The basic Trianon boundary, appears to have been drawn to place the strategic Timisoara (Temesvar)-Arad-Oradea Mare-Satmar railroad inside Rumania and to provide a narrow buffer zone for that line. After these items had been considered, ethnic, social, or economic factors came into play.

After much agitation, Hungary obtained a revision of the Trianon boundary line in 1940 through the intervention of Italy and Germany when about 40% of Transylvania was restored. The treaty of peace in 1947, however, returned to the earlier boundary.

C. Political

While Trianon Hungary suffered from the economic consequence of the treaty in the deprivation of mines, forests, and water control, the loss of millions of Magyars caused the greatest pressure for revision. It was claimed that the movement of the boundary about 20 to 30 miles outward would have left most of these peoples in Hungary.

The area ceded to Rumania had a population composed approximately of 54% Rumanians, 32% Hungarian, and 10% German, the remainder consisting of scattered nationalities. The Rumanian portion of the Banat was a true racial mixture with no one group in the majority. Rumanians and Germans dominated the picture with Hungarians and Slavs in secondary positions. The ratio in Transylvania, however, was quite different. Hungarians attained majorities in the 20-mile wide band east of the Trianon frontier as well as in central and eastern Transylvania. These latter two groups were cut off from each other and from the main Magyar group to the west by solidly Rumanian territory. To further complicate the distribution, Hungarians and Germans dominated the cities while Rumanians occupied the surrounding countryside. To draw an equitable ethnic boundary was virtually impossible.

In spite of migration to and from the region, "Transylvania" still has a large Hungarian minority and the welfare of the group still concerns Hungary. The recent reorganizations of the administrative divisions of Rumania changed the status and extent of the Magyar Autonomous Region in Eastern Transylvania. This region was established under Article 19 of the 1952 constitution of the Rumanian People's Republic. In 1960 the reform altered the name to the Mureş Magyar Autonomous Region and the fear persists that it might eventually become the Mureş Region without the concept of Magyar Autonomy. The reform also diluted the ethnic base of the region by adding three districts which had Magyar minorities and removing two in which they formed large majorities. Ostensibly in the interest of economic and administrative efficiency, the transfers are also charged with political meaning. Additional alterations in 1964 served to increase Magyar concern.

III. ANALYSIS OF BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The Hungary - Rumania boundary was delimited through the lowland of eastern Hungary by the specific allocation of villages to each state. The precise boundary, which was afterwards determined in the field by a mixed commission, reflects an effort to allocate peoples and resources within this narrow band.

From the first report of the Committee for the Study of Territorial Questions Relating to Rumania and Yugoslavia through to the final stage of the Treaty of Trianon, the boundary between Hungary and Rumania showed little basic change. The Committee stated that it proposed to "join to Rumania, not only Transylvania proper but also the adjacent districts where the majority of the population is Rumanian. It has not, however, always been able to apply the ethnical principle to the sub-division of this zone, for the following reasons:

(a) When on the linguistic frontier Magyar towns are found surrounded by Rumanian country districts, ... the nationality of the country should be allowed more weight than that of the towns, ...

(b) On the other hand, it would ... destroy the economic unity of Transylvania as a whole if Rumania were refused the outlets of the valleys in the plain, and a railway connecting these outlets with each other and with the Danube.

(c) Finally, the Committee considers it advisable ... to facilitate the junction of this railway with the railway systems of other Allied countries so as to make it a great connecting artery between those countries and the Danube.

The basic description of the boundary submitted by the Committee is as follows:

Leaving the point of junction of the frontiers of Roumania (sic) the Czechoslovak State (Ruthenian territory) and Hungary; the boundary between Roumania and Hungary runs in a general south-southwesterly direction, roughly parallel to and to the west of the railway Halmi; Szatmar-Nemeti; Nagy Károly; Nagy-Várad; Nagy-Szalonta.

Cuts the railway Nagy-Szalonta-Gyula about 12 kilometers from Nagy-Szalonta, passes between the two bifurcations formed by the junctions of this railway and the railway Szeghalom-Erdőgyarak.

Passes east of Kőtegyan, east of Gyula, west of Ottlakan, east of Kevermes, and east of Dombegyház, between Battonya and Torna, where it meets the administrative boundary between the Comitats of Csanad and Arad.

Following this administrative boundary to its salient north-north-west of Nemet-Pereg, whence it runs towards the river Maros which it reaches about 1 kilometre south of Nagylak station, passing between the town and the railway station.

Follows the Talweg (sic) of the Maros downstream to a point about 3.5 kilometres upstream from the railway bridge on the line Makó-Szeged. Thence it runs west-south-west, following the Talweg of a backwater as far as the bend which it makes at a point about 1 kilometre south-east of point 84 and about 9 kilometres south-west of Makó, of approximate position $46^{\circ} 10'$ North and $20^{\circ} 22'$ East of Greenwich. This point is the meeting place of the three frontiers of Roumania, Hungary, and Yugoslavia.

IV. TREATIES AND OTHER INTERNATIONAL ACTS

The present Hungary - Rumania boundary stems directly from the treaties and acts ending World War I; no treaty prior to this time is of any significance for the boundary alignment.

The process of determining the boundary was very complex. It involved the actions of a committee of experts, the Supreme Council of Allied and Associated Powers, the successor Council of Ambassadors and the Roumano-Hungarian Boundary Commission.

The supreme authority for the drafting of the treaty of peace with Hungary was the Supreme Council composed of two representatives each from France, Italy, Japan, the U.K., and the U.S. Since the Council proved too unwieldy, it was broken into the Council of Four (the ranking delegates of the Big Four) and the Council of Five (the foreign ministers of the five powers). After the signature of the treaty, responsibility devolved onto the Council of Ambassadors which continued to meet in Paris. The United States, after the U. S. Senate rejected the Versailles treaty in late 1919, officially withdrew from the work of the councils and was represented thereafter only by an observer.

- A. Treaty of Peace between the Allied and Associated Powers and Hungary and Protocol and Declaration signed at Trianon on June 4, 1920. Came into effect July 26, 1921.

The territorial clause affecting the Hungary - Rumania boundary (Article 27, 3) bears essentially the same description as the recommendation of the Committee for the Study of Territorial Questions relating to Rumania and Yugoslavia, mentioned in Section III above. There were two exceptions: 1) the delimitation ran from south to north and 2) it contained a certain vagueness about the Rumanian-Yugoslav-Hungarian tripoint. The Supreme Council, on June 13, 1919, had telegraphed to the states concerned their edited version of the Committee boundary and this description served as the ultimate basis for the treaty text.

The original Rumanian territorial claim had been based upon the secret treaty of August 17, 1916 with the Allied and Associated Powers which recognized Rumania's rights to almost all of Hungary east of the Tisza. The U.S. opposed this, and all other secret treaties, and the effect on the final settlement was small. The ultimate boundary further to the east transferred to Rumania 39,452 square miles and a population of 5,240,000 including approximately 1,670,000 Magyars.

The treaty of Trianon (Article 29) also provided for the creation of boundary commissions to fix the portions of the boundary defined as "a line to be fixed on the ground" as well as to revise the boundary where it was deemed necessary for local economic and administrative convenience.

Furthermore, Article 30 stated that where the terms "course" or "channel" were used to define the boundary in a waterway, they equated with the median line in non-navigable waterways or the thalweg in navigable ones.

The Rumano-Hungarian Boundary Commission composed of representatives of France (Chairman), the United Kingdom, Japan, Italy, Rumania, and Hungary began its work August 1, 1921. At the request of Hungary, the Commission accepted proposals for the revision of the boundary but they had little effect on the ultimate alignment of the border. The commission established its bases of operation in two booklets, Instruction Technique and Instruction Particuliere sur les Travaux Geodesiques et Topographiques. The Commission ultimately placed approximately 4,500 intervisible markers, 1,500 of which were major pillars. Local surveying teams placed and constructed the markers after the precise position had been determined by the Commission's decisions. The boundary was divided into 11 sectors, six of which the Commission accepted as described by the treaty as the precise line; the remaining five had minor adjustments.

The basic map utilized for field determination was the Austro-Hungarian 1:2,880 (22 inches to a mile) cadastral map. Where property lines differed from the map, changes were made to the map. As a consequence, the boundary, where possible, was determined to coincide with property lines. The field boundary was then transferred to the 1:5,000 map, the 1:25,000 and finally the 1:75,000. The last-named extended for a one kilometer band on both sides of the boundary and it became the official boundary map. In view of the sketchiness of the treaty description, the maps become primary sources for the precise location of the boundary. The work of the Commission was certified in a series of monthly reports and process verbaux submitted to the Council.

There followed in the 1920s and early 1930s a series of treaties and agreements on publicly-owned property, property owned by non-residents, and water-control across the frontier. These particular problems served to

strain relations between the two states for almost a generation. However, none of these affected the course of the boundary.

- B. Protocol of Delimitation of the Frontier concerning the Question of the Common Point to the Three Frontiers in the Banat delimited by the Protocol of November 24, 1923, signed (by Rumania and Yugoslavia) on June 4, 1927. (League of Nations Treaty Series CLVIII: 443)

The two protocols, in effect, divided the transferred portion of the Banat of Temesvar between Yugoslavia and Rumania. At the time of the demarcation of the Hungarian-Rumanian boundary, the precise partition had not been agreed upon. The Commission, as a result, placed the tripoint monument as described in the Trianon treaty. The later agreement led to the creation of a new point some distance from the earlier marker. The agreement affected the length of but not the placement of the boundary.

- C. The Vienna Award of August 30, 1940 (British and Foreign State Papers 144:417)

Hungary between the wars agitated consistently but peacefully for revisions to the territorial clauses of the Treaty of Trianon. The problem of Transylvania received the greatest attention with Southern Slovakia and Ruthenia second. After the beginning of World War II, Hungary's pressure for revision increased and finally on August 30, 1940 Germany and Italy made an arbitral award which returned Northern Transylvania to Hungary.

By the terms of the award, approximately 16,350 square miles (about 40% of the 1920 cession of Transylvania) was retroceded along with 2,864,402 inhabitants. The action, however, was never widely recognized since it was accomplished under duress.

- D. Armistice Between the United States, the United Kingdom, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on one hand and Hungary on the other signed January 20, 1945 (United Nations Treaty Series 140:397 ff.)

The armistice provisionally restored the boundary to the pre-war status pending a final peace treaty by declaring the Vienna Award to be null and void (Article 19).

- E. Treaty of Peace with Hungary signed February 10, 1947 and in effect September 15, 1947 (UNTS 41:135)

Article 1 (2) stated "The decisions of the Vienna Award of August 30, 1940, are declared null and void. The frontier between Hungary and Roumania as it existed on January 1, 1938, is hereby restored." In effect, the Trianon boundary again became the effective line between the two states.

No detailed post-war agreement on the frontier has been published in normal sources. Agreements on state borders and on border cooperation were signed by the two powers in 1952, 1958, and 1963. In July 1962, representatives of Hungary and Rumania signed an agreement pertaining to problems arising from the use of frontier waters, but as yet no details have become available. In addition, documents relating to the tripoint of Hungary-Rumania-U.S.S.R. were signed on July 30, 1949.

V. SUMMARY

The long-standing controversy between Hungary and Rumania over the possession of Transylvania has been subordinated since the end of World

War II and is currently not a matter of active contention. The political situation in Eastern Europe has ostensibly reduced friction between the two countries over this area which has long been a source of serious disagreement and a cause of resentment. Neither country is openly pressing for boundary changes but the basic issues that provided the fuel for the past dispute still persist.

Cartographically, the boundary should be considered to be a demarcated, international boundary which is not in dispute. The 1:75,000 maps of the delimitation commission are not generally available and may never have been printed in quantity. However, the commission did publish the Carte de la Frontière entre La Roumanie et La Hongrie, Traité de Paix signé à Trianon, le 4 Juin 1920, echelle 1:360,000. A comparison has shown that the Trianon boundary is correctly represented on the pre-war Hungarian 1:25,000 and 1:50,000 series and the Rumanian 1:100,000 series. No medium- or large-scale maps have been received from either country since the war but available small-scale maps have identical boundary representations. An additional source is the 1:1,000,000 Russian map annexed to the 1947 Treaty of Peace with Hungary.



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Map 200

International Boundary Study

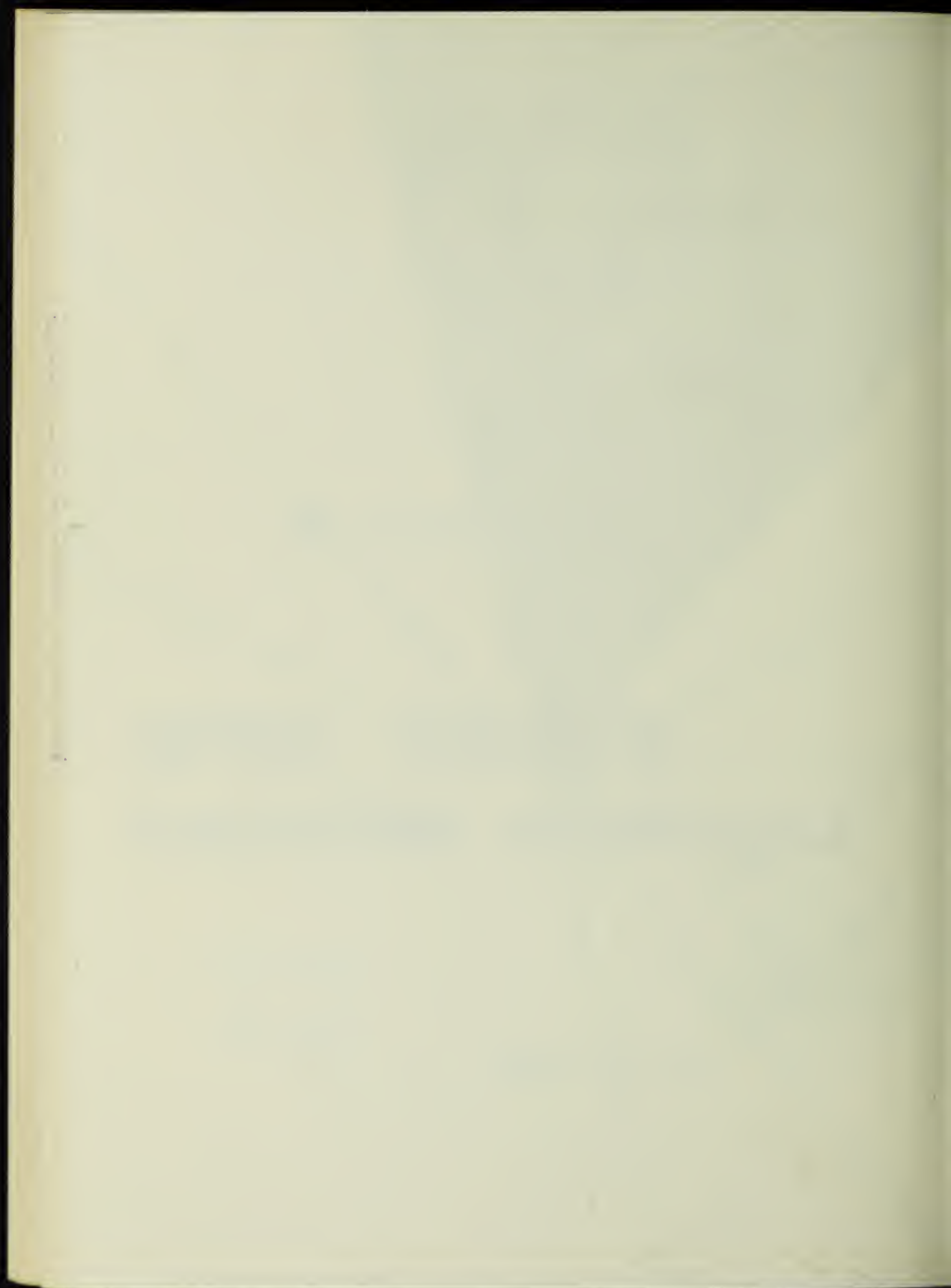
NO. 48 APRIL 30, 1965

BURUNDI – CONGO (Léopoldville) BOUNDARY



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This International Boundary Study is one of a series of specific boundary papers prepared by the Geographer, Office of Research in Economics and Science, Bureau of Intelligence and Research, Department of State, in accordance with provisions of Bureau of the Budget Circular No. A-16.

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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

No. 48

Burundi - Congo (Léopoldville) Boundary

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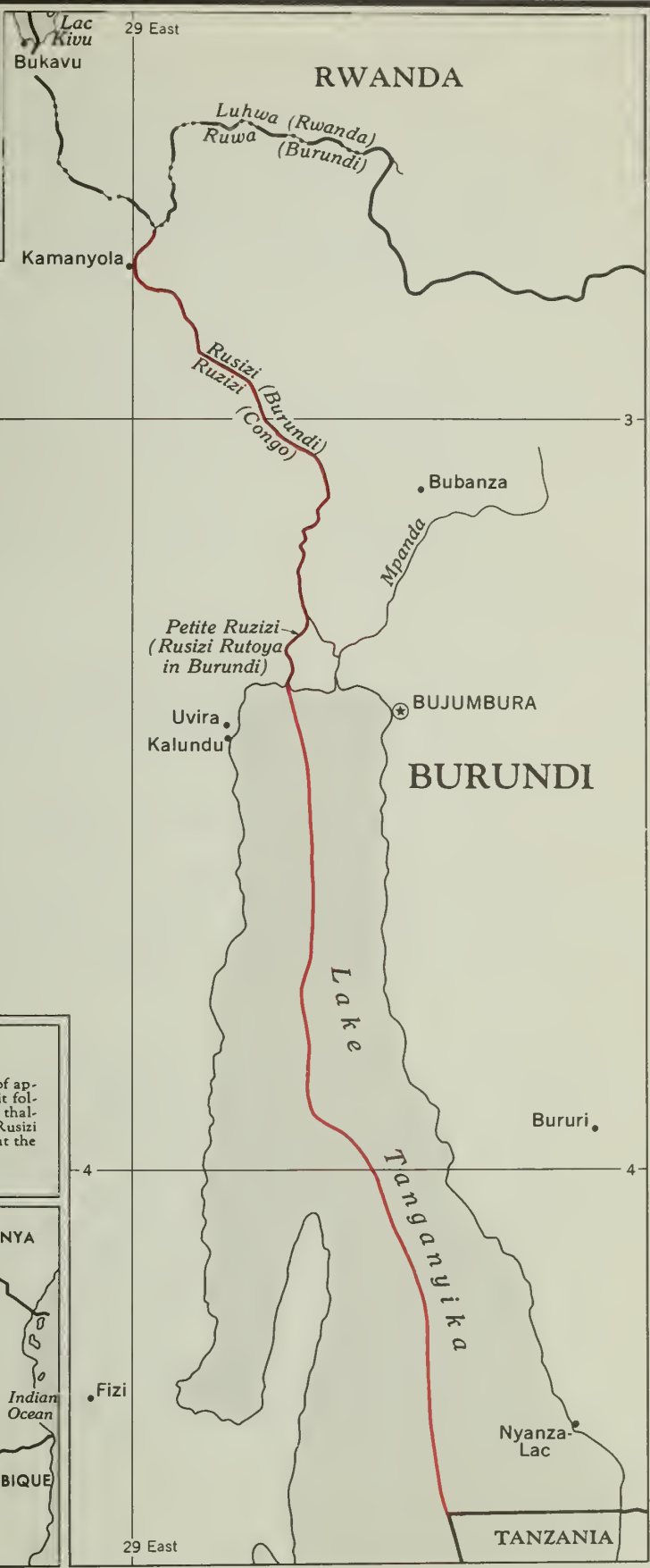
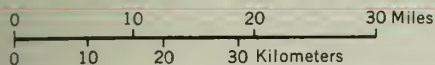
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BURUNDI - CONGO (LÉOPOLDVILLE) BOUNDARY

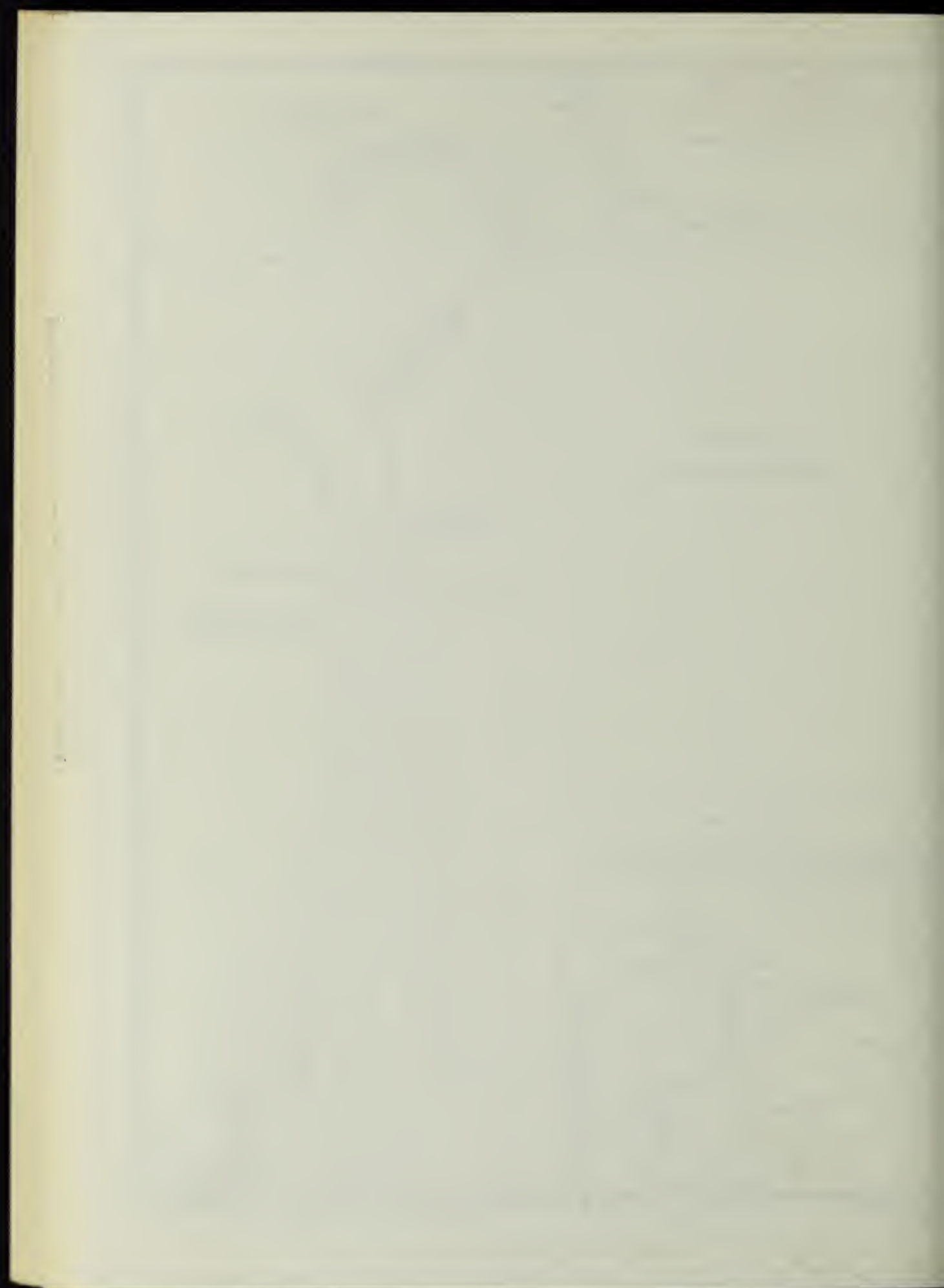
Source of Data: Office of the Geographer,
Dept. of State



BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Burundi-Congo (Léopoldville) boundary has a length of approximately 145 miles. Northward from the Tanzania tripoint, it follows the median line of Lake Tanganyika for about 79 miles, the thalweg of the Rusizi Rutoya for 8 miles, and the thalweg of the Rusizi for 58 miles to the Rwanda tripoint. The Rwanda tripoint is at the junction of the Rusizi and Ruwa rivers.





BURUNDI - CONGO (LEOPOLDVILLE) BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Burundi - Congo (Léopoldville) boundary has a length of approximately 145 miles. Northward from the Tanzania tripoint, it follows the median line of Lake Tanganyika for about 79 miles, the thalweg of the Rusizi Rutoya (Petite Ruzizi) for 8 miles, and the thalweg of the Rusizi (Ruzizi) for 58 miles to the Rwanda tripoint. The Rwanda tripoint is at the junction of the Rusizi and Ruwa (Luhwa) rivers.

II. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Berlin Conference of 1884-85 recognized King Leopold II of Belgium as the sovereign head of state for an International Association of the Congo. On July 1, 1885, the entity was renamed the Congo Free State, and in 1908 the state was accorded colonial status as the Belgium Congo. A declaration by the Administrator-General of the Department of Foreign Affairs of the Congo Free State asserted on August 1, 1885¹ that the eastern limits of the entity, which included the sector adjacent to Burundi, were determined southward from the intersection of the 4th parallel of north latitude with the 30th meridian of east longitude as follows:

The 30th degree of longitude east of Greenwich up to 1° 20' of south latitude;

A straight line drawn from the intersection of the 30th degree of longitude by the parallel of 1° 20' of south latitude as far as the northern extremity of Lake Tanganyika;

A straight line drawn from Lake Tanganyika to Lake Moero [Mweru] by 8° 30' south latitude.

The limit of the state adjacent to Burundi was reiterated similarly in a declaration of neutrality by the Congo Free State in December, 1894.

Between 1885 and World War I, Burundi, formerly Urundi, was administered, along with Ruanda and Tanganyika, as part of German East Africa. On August 11, 1910, a convention signed by Belgium and Germany modified the limits formerly claimed by the Congo Free State and established the present boundary between Burundi and the Congo. Following World War I,

¹ Prior to the declaration of the boundaries of the Congo Free State in 1885, treaties were signed by the International Association of the Congo with Germany, France, and Belgium. Maps attached to the treaties indicated the limits of the Congo that the three states would accept as reproduced on a map opposite page 604 in the book by Edward Hertslet, The Map of Africa by Treaty, 3 vols., 3rd ed. (London: Harrison and Sons, 1909) Vol. 2. The limits shown on the German map immediately north of Lake Tanganyika approximated closely the present Burundi - Congo boundary, whereas the limits drawn on the French and Belgian maps resembled more closely that of the declaration of 1885. Referenced treaties are as follows: 1) Convention between the German Empire and the International Association of the Congo, Berlin, November 8, 1884. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 572-573; 2) Conventions between the Government of the French Republic and the International Association of the Congo, Paris, February 5, 1885. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 564-565; and 3) Declarations exchanged between the Belgian Government and the International Association of the Congo, Berlin, February 23, 1885. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 544 - 545.

a Belgian mandate was established for Ruanda-Urundi, and after World War II, Belgian administration of the entity continued as a trusteeship. Similarly under British administration, Tanganyika became first a League of Nations mandate and then a United Nations trusteeship.

All states adjoining the Burundi-Congo boundary have recently become independent beginning with the Congo² on June 30, 1960. Both Urundi and Ruanda became independent on July 1, 1962 as the Kingdom of Burundi and the Republic of Rwanda, respectively. Tanganyika became independent on December 9, 1961. The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar³ was constituted by a merger on April 27, 1964, and the name of the state was changed to the United Republic of Tanzania on October 29, 1964.

III. POLITICO-GEOGRAPHIC SETTING

The Burundi - Congo boundary is located in the western branch of the Great Rift valley. The southern part of the boundary follows the median line in Lake Tanganyika whose surface is about 2,540 feet above mean sea level. For most of its length, the land rises steeply from the shores of the lake. Narrow plains along the eastern and western shores coalesce north of the lake to form a relatively broad lowland along the Rusizi. In general, elevations in the lowlands range between 2,550 and 3,500 feet. The only route of significance crossing the boundary is the road between Bujumbura, Burundi and Uvira, Congo.

The northern part of the boundary comprising the Rusizi and the Rusizi Rutoya, a tributary of the former west of the main stream, passes through marshland or former marshland. The streams are characterized by numerous meanders which lengthen the boundary considerably over what would be the straight-line distance between Lake Tanganyika and the Rwanda tripoint. Recently a number of marsh areas adjacent to the streams have been drained for agricultural purposes.

Located only a short distance south of the equator, the boundary area has a tropical climate. There are two wet and two dry seasons. Precipitation on adjacent uplands ranges between about 40 and 55 inches, however, within the downfaulted valley immediately along the boundary, precipitation is less and steppe conditions prevail. Temperatures are considerably cooler in the uplands than in the valley of the Rusizi.

Population densities are between 100 and 250 persons per square mile and the people are mainly rural dwellers. Coffee and some cotton are grown on the lowlands for cash crops. Important subsistence crops include rice, cassava, and peanuts. Apparently the most numerous people of Burundi, the Bahutu, originally migrated eastward from the Congo centuries ago to the present location.

IV. BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The Tanzania tripoint is located on the median line of Lake Tanganyika at about 4° 27' S. Following the establishment of a mandate for Ruanda-Urundi, an Anglo-Belgian commission demarcated the boundary with Tanganyika between 1922 and 1924. A protocol dated August 5, 1924 approved the work

² The name of the Republic of the Congo was officially changed to the Democratic Republic of the Congo on August 1, 1964.

³ Prior to the merger, Zanzibar had gained its independence on December 10, 1963.

of the commission and indicated in Paragraph 51 that the international boundary in Lake Tanganyika had been decided upon as follows:⁴

By common agreement it is suggested that our respective Governments consider the boundary in the waters of Lake Tanganyika to be the parallel due west from Boundary Pillar No. 1 to the point of intersection with the north and south median line of the lake.

The convention signed by Belgium and Germany on August 11, 1910 gives the alignment of the Burundi - Congo boundary as follows:⁵

From Lake Tanganyika to Lake Kivu:

The boundary, leaving the median line of Lake Tanganyika, curves in order to follow the thalweg of the main western branch of the Russisi [Rusizi or Ruzizi] delta as far as the northern tip of the delta.

It then takes the thalweg of that river to the point where it flows out of Lake Kivu.

The Rwanda tripoint is located at the junction of the Rusizi and Ruwa rivers between Lake Tanganyika and Lac Kivu. There are no known treaties establishing the tripoint, and the Burundi - Rwanda boundary appears to be a traditional line between the two states.

V. PRESENT SITUATION

There are no known boundary areas disputed officially by the Congo and Burundi; although recently unofficial Congolese claims were made to the delta area between the Rusizi Rutoya and the Rusizi.

⁴ The Burundi - Tanzania boundary on the shore of Lake Tanganyika is described in Paragraph 1 of the Anglo-Belgian protocol of 1924 as follows: "1. B.P. No. I, situated on the Eastern shore of Lake Tanganyika, at above 13 feet (four metres) from the water's edge and at the outlet of the Nyakolika Ravine; thence up the thalweg of this ravine to B.P. No. II situated at its head.

⁵ The convention also included that part of the present Congo - Rwanda boundary between the Burundi tripoint, junction of the Rusizi and Ruwa rivers, and the Uganda tripoint, Volcan Sabinyo.

APPENDIX

DOCUMENTS

1. Circular of the Administrator-General of Foreign Affairs of the Independent State of the Congo, declaring the Neutrality of that State, within its Limits as defined by Treaties. Brussels, August 1, 1885. Edward Hertslet, The Map of Africa by Treaty, 3 vols. 3rd. ed. (London: Harrison and Sons, 1909) Vol. 2, pp. 552-553.
2. Declaration of the Neutrality of the Congo Free State. Brussels, December 28, 1894. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 557-561.
3. Convention en vue d'approuver l'arrangement signé à Bruxelles, le 14 mai 1910, fixant la frontière entre le Protectorat allemand de l'Afrique Orientale et la Colonie du Congo belge; signée à Bruxelles, le 11 août 1910 (Les ratifications ont été échangées à Bruxelles, le 27 juillet 1911). De Martens, G. Fr., Recueil De Traités, Troisième Série, Tome VII, pp. 372-375.
4. Protocole concernant l'abornement de la frontière entre la Colonie du Congo belge et celle de l'est Africain allemand; signé à Goma, le 25 juin 1911, approuvé par un Echange de notes du 7 juin 1912. Ibid., Tome VII, pp. 372-375.
5. Correspondence regarding the modification of the Boundary between British Mandated Territory and Belgian Mandated Territory in East Africa, October 1923, United Kingdom Command 1974 (In continuation of Cmd 1794). A map of the boundary is included.
6. Protocol respecting the Boundary between Tanganyika Territory and the Belgian Mandated Territory of Ruanda-Urundi, Kigoma, August 5, 1924, United Kingdom Treaty Series No. 6 (1927) Command 2812 (includes three boundary map sheets).
7. Jentgen, P., "Notice de la Carte des Frontières du Congo Belge." Atlas Général du Congo (Bruxelles, 1953).
8. Jentgen, P., "Les Frontières du Congo Belge, "Institut Royal Colonial Belge, Mémoires, Tome XXV, 1952.

MAPS

1. Ruanda-Urundi: scale 1:200,000; Service Cartographique, Ministère des Colonies; published 1937 by Institut Cartographique Militaire, Bruxelles, Belgium; sheets 2 and 4.
2. Ruanda-Urundi: scale 1:100,000; Service Cartographique, Ministère des Colonies; published 1936 by Institut Cartographique Militaire, Bruxelles, Belgium; sheets 15, 19, 23, 26, and 27.
3. Rwanda and Burundi: Series 1301, Edition 2, scale 1:500,000; published 1964 by United States Army Map Service.



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Map. No. 8.

International Boundary Study

NO. 49 MAY 15, 1965

BULGARIA - TURKEY BOUNDARY



issued by: The Geographer

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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

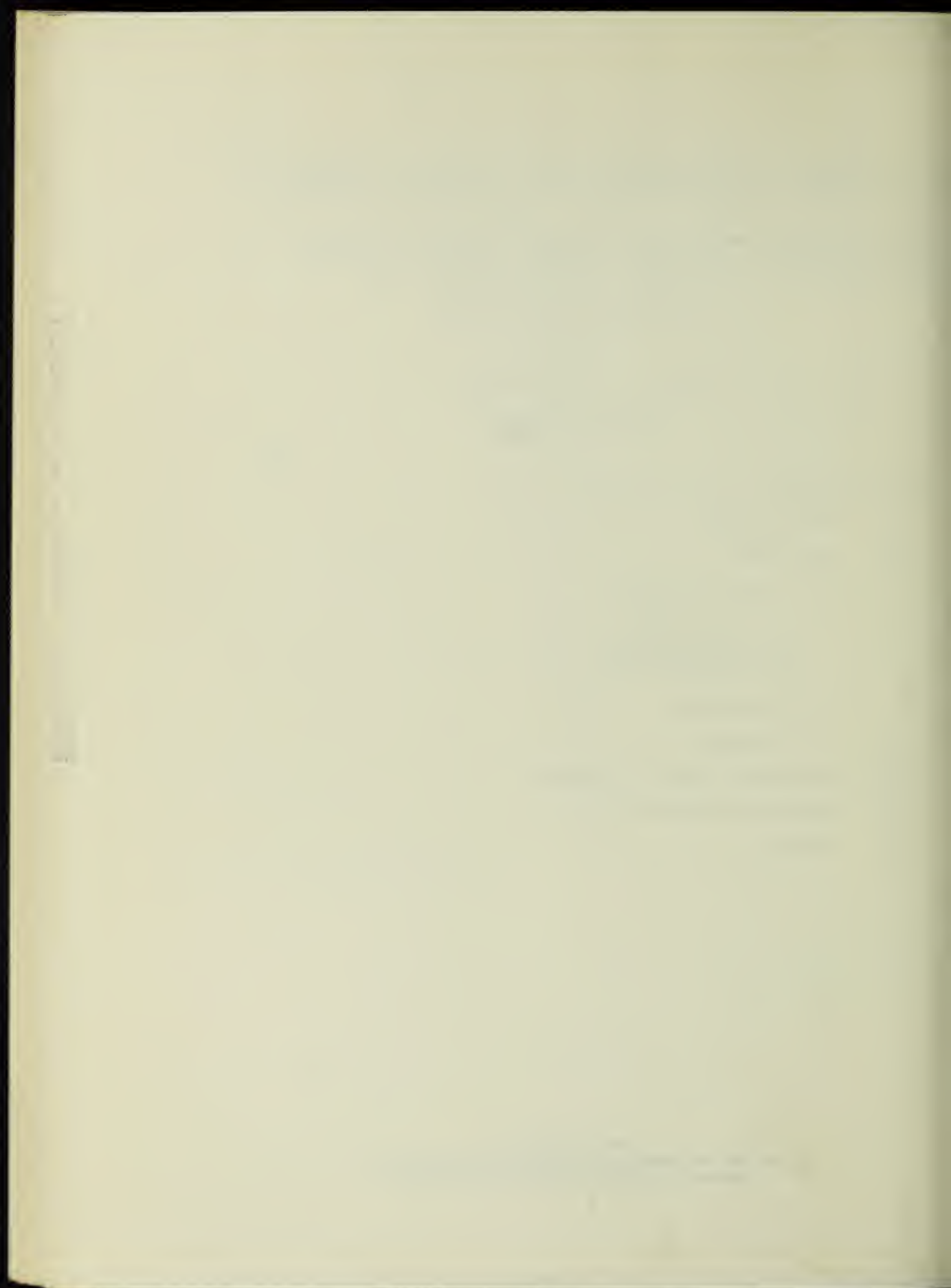
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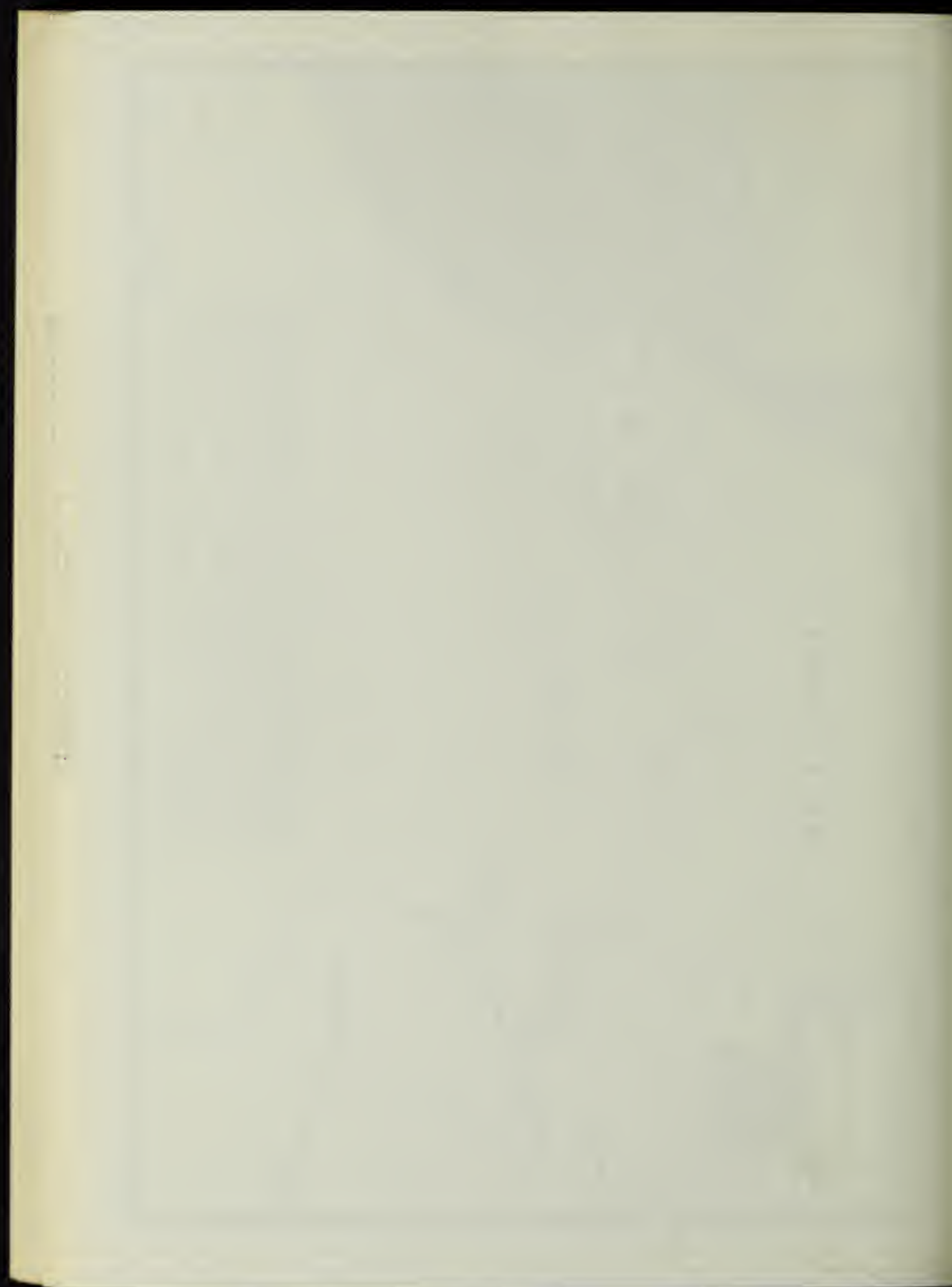
Bulgaria - Turkey Boundary

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The Geographer
Office of Research in Economics and Science
Bureau of Intelligence and Research





BULGARIA - TURKEY BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Bulgaria - Turkey Boundary is 149 miles (239.5 kms.) in length and is demarcated.¹ Beginning at the mouth of the Rezovska (Rezvaya) River on the Black Sea, the boundary follows the river a distance of 41 miles (66 kms.) to the confluence of the Pirogu and Deledzhi (Deliva) Rivers. The boundary then follows the course of the Deliva in a generally northwesterly direction a distance of 9.5 miles (15.25 kms.) where it leaves the river. The line continues in a northwesterly direction along ridges demarcated by boundary pillars a distance of 10.8 miles (15.75 kms.) to the Golema (Veleka) stream. The Golema forms the boundary for 1.2 miles which then follows land markers in a generally southwesterly direction a distance of about 59.3 miles (95.5 kms.) to the Tunca (Tundzha) River. Continuing southward in the Tunca for 7.5 miles (12 kms.), the boundary leaves the Tunca at boundary marker 280 following southwestward, then westward on land for 11.6 miles (18.75 kms.) to a tributary of the Kalamitsa River, thence continues on the Kalamitsa a distance of 5.4 miles (8.75 kms.), and follows a final straight line segment of 3.4 miles (5.5 kms.) southeastward to the Greek tripoint on the Maritsa River.

The boundary and location of the pillars are shown on sheets 1 through 14 of La Commission de Délimitation de la Frontière Gréco-Bulgare (Turkiye-Bulgaristan Hududu) drawn by the official boundary demarcation commission of 1921.

II. BACKGROUND

A. Political Geography

The Bulgaria - Turkey Boundary like that between Turkey and Greece² centers on control of the key landbridge connecting Europe and Asia known as the Straits. The boundary region's strategic importance recognized and fought over since ancient times has not only involved interests of all countries in the vicinity but also the rival interests of the Great Powers.

1. Early History

In the first century A.D. the boundary area was a part of the Roman Empire which controlled the entire Balkan Peninsula. During nearly three centuries of Roman rule the area prospered, until progressively increasing numbers of "barbarians" assaulted the frontier outposts of the Empire.

The defeat of the "barbarians" in the historic battle of Adrianople (Edirne) in 378 A.D. on the Maritsa was a major victory in Rome's struggle to maintain the empire's frontier on the Danube River. Nevertheless, the

¹ Measured in the Office of the Geographer on the official 1:25,000 maps of the Boundary Commission.

² See International Boundary Study No. 41, Greece-Turkey Boundary, November 23, 1964.

entire Balkan region soon was occupied by Gothic and other Teutonic tribes. Great Slavic invasions commenced in the sixth century. Crossing the Danube, they later occupied the entire Balkans in such numbers as to give a Slavic character to the Peninsula.

The Asiatic Bulgars believed to have arrived in the area about the same time as the Slavs gradually merged with the Slavic peoples. By 670 A.D. the Bulgars established themselves south of the Danube around Varna. While conquering, the Bulgars were absorbed by the more numerous Slavs, adopting the culture and language while retaining their own name and political organization.

Until the Turkish conquests of the Balkans in the fourteenth century, the fate of Bulgaria varied according to the relative strengths and weaknesses of its rulers, and that of the Byzantine Empire headquartered at Constantinople.

2. Ottoman Period

The Ottoman Turks crossed the Dardanelles about the middle of the fourteenth century to commence an energetic campaign against the declining Byzantine Empire. Adrianople, a key city on the land bridge, captured in 1361, became the Ottoman capital; Plovdiv (Philippopolis) was taken in 1364, and Sofia in 1384. In 1389, the Turks defeated the Serbs, their Rumanian allies, as well as the Bulgarians. Constantinople itself withstood Turkish onslaughts until 1453.

Bulgaria remained under Turkish domination until the Russo-Turkish Wars of 1877-78 when Russian forces advanced to Chatalja near the Bosphorus. She then became an autonomous tributary of the Turkish Sultan. While the Powers at the Congress of Berlin in 1878 limited the expansive proportions that Russia desired ceded to Bulgaria in the Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878), the Treaty of Berlin (July 13, 1878) established a compact State of Bulgaria extending from the Balkan Mountains to the Danube River. Bulgaria's subject status under the Ottoman Sultan remained.

Political and territorial change quickened in the years preceding World War I. Within Turkey, there was increasing demand for governmental reform and elimination of cumbersome Ottoman administrative machinery. In the Balkan provinces, growing forces of nationalism and independence, accelerated by increasing rivalries among the European Powers seeking to eliminate the "sick man" from Europe, all converged toward political collision. In 1908, Bulgarian Prince Ferdinand, taking advantage of the Young Turk revolution which rendered the Turkish Porte temporarily powerless, proclaimed himself Czar of independent Bulgaria.

3. The Balkan Wars

Bulgaria's independence whetted and magnified memories of the Bulgarian Empire in medieval times. A secret treaty with Serbia, followed by similar agreements with Greece and Montenegro committed the Balkan Allies to drive Turkey out of the Balkans. Arrangements were made while Turkey was at war with Italy (1911-1912) which ended with Turkey enfeebled. In October 1912, the First Balkan War began, shortly thereafter the Bulgarian Army took Mustapha Pasha (Svlingrad) and Kirk Kilisse (Kirkklarelí), and in March 1913 captured Adrianople itself. The Turkish Army retreated to within twenty-five miles of Constantinople to the Chatalja defense line, thus reducing European Turkey to the Chatalja and Gallipoli peninsulas.

However, the success of the Balkan League countries exposed their separate ambitions. In the ensuing Treaty of London (May 30, 1913) between Bulgaria, Greece, Montenegro, Serbia, on the one part, and Turkey on the other, all territory west of a line drawn from Enos (Enez) on the Aegean to Midia (Midye) on the Black Sea was relinquished by Turkey.

The fighting against Turkey ended; the Balkan Allies turned against each other. Bulgaria's claims included in the earlier secret agreements were frustrated by Serbia and Greece. As a result Bulgaria attacked the Serbian and Greek Armies along the Macedonian frontier in June. Thereupon began the short but intense Second Balkan War, in which Turkey and Rumania joined Greece, Serbia, and Montenegro, against Bulgaria. With Bulgaria fighting on nearly all flanks, Turkey recaptured Adrianople easily. An armistice took place in July and a Treaty of Peace was signed at Bucharest on August 10, 1913 between Bulgaria and her former Allies. A separate treaty with Turkey was signed at Constantinople on September 29, 1913.

Territorial changes as a result of the Second Balkan War moved the Turkish-Bulgarian boundary westward to the Maritsa. Bulgaria lost Adrianople. Her long vaunted claim to an outlet on the Aegean became limited to about a seventy mile strip west of the Maritsa River, which included the port of Dedeagatch.

4. World War I

It is not surprising, therefore, that the Balkan Wars nurtured bitterness and a desire for vengeance among the Balkan States. Bulgaria found its chance to retaliate by siding with Turkey and the Central Powers in October 1915. The decision was made easier by Turkey's cession to Bulgaria of territory around Üsküdar (Shtit) and moving the rest of the 1913 boundary to about one mile east of the Maritsa (Treaty of Sofia, September 6, 1915). Confining her military operations to the Serbian and Greek frontiers, Bulgaria became the thoroughfare between the Danube and the Bosphorus for German reinforcements to Turkey. Bulgaria was defeated following the final Balkan drive of the Allied Armies in October 1918.

The Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine, November 27, 1919 ended Bulgaria's part in World War I. As a result, Bulgaria was cut off from the Aegean. An economic outlet in the form of transit rights through Thrace to the Aegean was ensured by the Allied and Associated powers. The conditions of the guarantee were to be fixed at a later date. However, when the subject was raised in the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923, Bulgaria rejected the offer of transit rights at the port of Dedeagatch (Alexandroupolis).

B. Physiographic

The Bulgaria - Turkey boundary region is located in the southeastern extremity of the Balkan Peninsula. From the north on the Bulgarian side, the chief physiographic feature is a large mountainous area in the shape of a C which faces the Black Sea. The northern arc of the C which forms the Balkan Range, is also called the Stara Planina. The western arc consists of the massive Rila Mountains whose highest peak of 9,597 feet is the highest point of East Central Europe. The southern arc forms the Rhodope Mountains which fan into several broken dissected ranges. Within the arc is the fertile Rumelian basin drained by the Maritsa River which flows to the Aegean Sea.

On the southern Turkish side of the boundary, the Rhodope form the Istranca Mountains extending in a broken line southeastward toward the Black Sea. However, the Istranca, which are generally low lying mountains, gradually rise to form an almost inaccessible wall parallel to the Black Sea coast as far as the Chatalja Peninsula. On the southwestern side, the Istranca descend gradually and irregularly toward the Sea of Marmara and the Aegean. Most of the 9,000 square miles of European Turkey, about 3 percent of the total area of Turkey, is relatively fertile land.

The historic land route between the European heartland and the Orient passes through intensive agricultural lands of the Maritsa in Bulgaria. Plovdiv (Philippopolis) in the center of the Maritsa valley, and Sofia the Bulgarian capital are important cities along this route. The main lines of communication and transport after crossing the tangled Balkan ranges converge at Edirne (Adrianople) which is near the Greek boundary tripoint. From there the lines of communication run southeasterly toward Istanbul and Anatolia.

The chief physical feature of the immediate boundary area is the Istranca mountain system which is covered with forest, except in the valleys and on the few high peaks. The trees are chiefly oak and beech and some pine. The bulk of the hill country is covered only with scrub which is difficult to traverse. On the high slopes, the granite forms a rough broken surface. The valleys afford some cultivation and pasturage. Other than several tracks or trails, only one all weather road crosses the boundary in the northern Istranca. This road which connects Kirklareli, Turkey and Malko Turnovo, Bulgaria, continues to the Black Sea port of Burgas.

Climate

Climate in the boundary area ranges between continental and Mediterranean. The Balkan Mountains in the north, standing as a barrier between the northerly winds of the European continent and the winds from the Mediterranean and the south, affect the nature of the climate. During the summer months the plains area on the south side, under the shadow of the Balkans from which warm and dry air currents descend after depositing much of their moisture on the northern slopes, enjoys a warm sub-tropical climate.

The cold, dry conditions which prevail on the Russian steppes in the winter months frequently extend to the Balkan peninsula, accounting for the moderate rainfall and low temperature then experienced. Average monthly precipitation during the winter rainy season is between 3 and 4 inches while that of the dry summer months does not exceed 2 inches. Temperature ranges between the mean minimum of 36° in January to the mean maximum of 86° in July or August.

C. Ethnography

Much like the topography, ethnography in the boundary area is marked by complexity and change. This can be understood readily when one recalls the number and variety of peoples that have vied with one another. In ancient times the region was inhabited by Thraco-Illyrians who probably were absorbed by the great Slavic immigrations which took place in increasing numbers from the third through the seventh centuries. The Bulgars, although reluctant to concede that Slavs preceded them, are known to have settled south of the Danube in the seventh century. Like the Huns

and the Avars who preceded them (Goths and other Teutons also preceded them) and like the Magyars and the Turks who followed them, the Bulgars, classified as Turanian, Mongol, or Tatar, are of Ural-Altaic origin.

The Ottoman Period

Following the Ottoman Turkish crossing of the Straits in the fourteenth century and the conquest of the Balkans, the Ottoman social and political pattern was imprinted on the ethnographic map. During five centuries of Ottoman rule, the map included Bulgar, Turk, Serb, Macedonian, Greeks, Gypsies, Vlachs, Armenians, Russians, Jews, Albanians, Circasians and others. The term "Balkanization" is an apt description of this ethnographic puzzle. Despite its complexity, however, society and politics, inseparable in Ottoman times, fitted an over-all pattern that could be described as an ethnic mosaic.

While the Empire was in ascendancy, a steady migration of varied peoples from Asian lands moved into the Balkans and to the outer European boundaries of the Ottoman Empire. As the Empire declined the migrations reversed direction.

Population figures in Ottoman times vary considerably in validity. However, the 1910 Census estimate for Bulgaria is as follows:

Total Population: 4,337,516

Bulgars	3,203,810	Jews	37,663
Turks	488,010	Armenians	12,270
Rumanian	75,773	Germans	3,863
Gypsies	98,004	Russians	3,275
Greeks	63,487	Others	61,690
Pomaks	26,000		

At this time the number of Turks in the Maritsa and Tunca valleys and in eastern Rumelia was probably about half the total population. The Balkan Wars, however, brought about sharp changes in the human landscape in the Bulgaria - Turkey, as well as the Greek frontier.

Before the outbreak of the Balkan Wars in 1912, the relative proportion of ethnic grouping in European Turkey, that is, east of the Maritsa and south of the Rezvaya, is estimated as 65% Turkish, 24% Greek, and about 10% Bulgar. Armenians lived principally in the larger cities -- perhaps 200,000 in Istanbul (Constantinople), 9,000 at Adrianople and perhaps 1,000 to 2,000 in a few other cities. In the towns, however, Turks formed only about one-third of the population, Greeks made up about one-half of the maritime towns on the Aegean and the Straits. The Bulgars occupied Adrianople, perhaps 100,000, and extended eastward adjoining the mass of Turkish population.

At the outbreak of the First Balkan War (1912-13) most of the Bulgarian population was driven out of Eastern Thrace, although a few were allowed to remain in Adrianople and Kirkclareli. In addition, about 60,000 of the Greek population, which may have numbered 200,000 in 1912 emigrated west of the Maritsa by August 1914.

The void caused by emigration became partially filled by immigration of Turks, Pomaks, and other Muslims from Bulgaria, Macedonia, Albania, and Greece, all territories formerly part of Ottoman Turkey. In Bulgaria,

population increased about 400,000 to 4,753,000 between 1910 and 1914. This two-way movement of population across the boundary was well under way before World War I, and before the new Turkish Republic avowed a vigorous policy of Turkification including an aggressive effort to erase all Ottoman patterns.

More recently, in 1950, the People's Republic of Bulgaria, reflecting the political tensions existing between the Soviet Bloc and the Free World, expelled 250,000, nearly one-third of the Turkish population.

The Present Scene

Today, most traces of the ethnographic mosaic of Ottoman times are erased. On the Turkish side of the boundary, the population based on the census estimate of 1960, is 2,284,621. The area is essentially homogeneous, consisting of Turks, but including the Turkified Muslims of Bulgarian extraction called Pomaks. The Greek population has been reduced to about 60,000 Turkish citizens and about 4,000 Greek citizens living in Istanbul.

In Bulgaria, the population as of the 1956 census estimate was as follows:

Total Population:	7,613,709
Bulgars	6,506,541
Turks	662,018
Gypsies	197,865
Macedonians	187,789
Armenians	22,000
Russians	10,551
Greeks	7,500
Jews	6,029
Others	13,406

Within proximity of the boundary area itself, the combined population of the three first order divisions or districts (Okrug) of Burgas, Starazagora, and Khaskovo, all of which border the Turkish frontier, was 1,666,797. This figure included 1,355,470 Bulgars and 251,831 Turks or a ratio of 5 Bulgars to one Turk.

The Bulgarian Yearbook for 1963 gives the total population for Bulgaria as 8,111,100 and that of the three frontier districts as 1,013,900. A breakdown of population according to minorities is unavailable.

III. ANALYSIS OF BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The Bulgaria - Turkey boundary was last defined in the Treaty of Lausanne of July 24, 1923. With the exception of the fixing of the Greek tripoint, it is as demarcated in 1921 by La Commission de Delimitation de la Frontiere Gréco-Bulgare as stipulated in the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine of November 27, 1919. The entire boundary is essentially that formed by the Treaty of Constantinople of September 29, 1913, between Bulgaria and Turkey including the revision according to the Treaty of Sofia of September 6, 1915. The Treaty of Lausanne confirmed the entire boundary and prescribed the tripoint which finally was fixed on the Maritsa River by a demarcation commission in 1926.³

³ Ibid.

The Treaty of Peace between Bulgaria and Turkey (Treaty of Constantinople) of September 29, 1913 described the boundary as follows:

ARTICLE I. The Frontier

The frontier between the two countries commences at the mouth of the river Rezvaja, south of the Monastery of San Ivan, which is located on the Black Sea; it follows the course of this river as far as the confluence of the rivers Pirogu and Déliva, to the west of Kamila-Köj. Between the mouth and the point of confluence above-mentioned the river Rezvaja, starting from its mouth, follows first a southwesterly direction and, leaving Placa to Turkey, forms a bend and goes towards the northwest and then towards the southwest; the villages of Madzura and Pirogoplo remain in Ottoman territory. The river Rezvaja, after having followed a southerly direction beginning at Pirogoplo and for a distance of approximately five and a half kilometers, turns towards the west and the north and then goes along, slightly curved towards the north, in a generally western direction. In this portion, the villages of Likudi and Kladara remain in Bulgarian territory, and the villages of Ciknigori, Mavrodio and Lafva return to Turkey; then the frontier, always following the Rezvaja river, leaves Torfu-Ciflik to Bulgaria, goes towards the southeast and, leaving the village of Kamila-Köjin Ottoman territory, arrives at a point about four hundred meters to the west of this village, at the point of confluence of the rivers Pirogu and Déliva.

Starting from the junction point of the rivers Pirogu and Déliva, the frontier line follows the course of the Déliva, and extending along this river in a general northwesterly direction, leaves the villages of Paspala, Kandildzik and Déli to Turkey and ends east of Souk-Sou; this last-named village remains to Turkey, while Sévéligu goes to Bulgaria. After having passed between Souk-Sou and Sévéligu, the frontier line continues in a northwesterly direction, following the ridge which passes over hills 687, 619, and 563; beyond hill 563 it leaves the village of Caglaik (Cajirlik) in Ottoman territory, and passing around this last village three kilometers to its east and north, it reaches the Goléma stream. The frontier follows the course of the Goléma for a distance of about two kilometers and reaches the junction point of this stream and the other branch of the same river, which comes from the south from Karabanlar); beginning at this confluence the frontier line passes along the ridge to the north of the stream coming from Türk-Alatli and arrives at the old Turco-Bulgarian frontier.

The junction point of the new line and the old frontier is four kilometers east of Türk-Alatli, at the point where the ancient Turco-Bulgarian frontier forms an angle towards the north in the direction of Aykiri-yol.

Starting at this point it exactly follows the former Turco-Bulgarian frontier as far as Balaban-Basi west of the Toundja and north of the village of Derviska-Mog.

At the point where the 1913 boundary crossed the Tunca River, south of the Bulgarian town of Radovets (Konstantinovo, Tatar-keuy), the line

was revised by the Treaty of Sofia, September 6, 1915. The new line turned southward on the Tunca a distance of 7.5 miles (12 kms.). Markers numbered 279 are placed on both sides of the Tunca where the boundary follows the river and again double markers numbered 280 where the line departs from the Tunca. The boundary follows southwestward a distance of 5.4 miles, thence due westward from marker numbered 289 following a distance of six miles to a tributary of the Kalamitsa river, leaving the towns of Pachama-hale and Üsküdar (Shtit) to Bulgaria. The boundary follows the Kalamitsa a distance of 5.4 miles to marker number 315, thence follows a final straight line segment of 3.4 miles southeastward to terminal marker number 320 and the Greek tripoint on the Maritsa River.

IV. TREATIES AND OTHER ACTS

The following treaties pertain directly to the present Bulgaria - Turkey boundary:

- A. Treaty of Peace Between Bulgaria and Turkey, signed at Constantinople, September 16/29, 1913.

Article I, defines the Bulgaria-Turkey frontier.

The Treaty of Constantinople, and the Treaty of Bucharest, signed on August 10, 1913 between Bulgaria and Greece, Serbia, Rumania, and Montenegro ended the Second Balkan War.

- B. Convention between Bulgaria and Turkey for the Rectification of the Frontier between the two Countries, signed at Sofia, August 24 (September 6), 1915.

This treaty revised the 1913 boundary by a cession of Turkish territory around Üsküdar to a line about one mile east of the Maritsa River.

- C. Treaty of Peace between the Allied and Associated Powers and Bulgaria, signed at Neuilly-sur-Seine, November 27, 1919.

This treaty defined the boundary according to the Treaty of Constantinople of 1913 and the Treaty of Sofia of 1915, excluded Bulgaria from the Aegean and provided for the formation of an international boundary demarcation commission.

- D. La Commission de Délimitation de la Frontière Gréco-Bulgare, 1921.

This commission established according to the Treaty of Neuilly, delimited and demarcated the entire Bulgaria-Turkey boundary.

- E. Treaty of Lausanne between Turkey and various Allied Powers, signed at Lausanne, July 24, 1923.

The Treaty of Lausanne defined the tripoint with Greece, which finally was fixed on the Maritsa River by a demarcation commission in 1926. The Treaty also confirmed the boundary as demarcated in 1921.

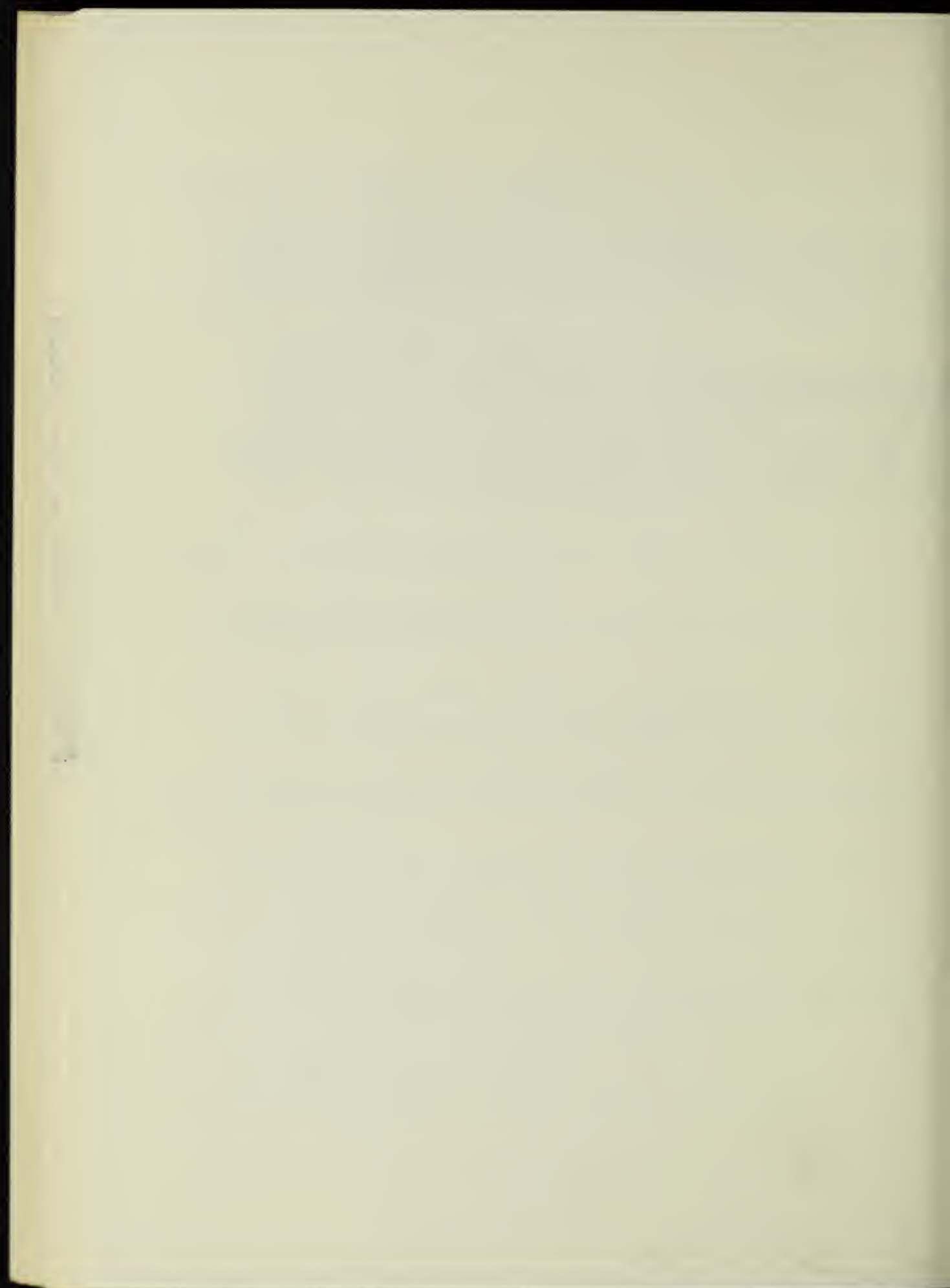
- F. Treaty of Paris, February 10, 1947.

This treaty confirmed all Bulgarian frontiers "which existed on 1 January 1941."

V. SUMMARY

The Bulgaria - Turkey Boundary is 149 miles (239.5 kms.) in length, comprises 64 miles in water and 85 miles on land. The entire boundary is demarcated; 320 intervisible boundary pillars are erected on the segments on land. There are no active disputes known to exist regarding the specific alignment of the boundary. However, the possibility of boundary friction persists.

Location of the boundary markers are shown on Sheets 1 through 14 of La Commission de Délimitation de la Frontière Gréco-Bulgare (Turkiye-Bulgaristan Hududu) 1:25,000, prepared by the official Boundary Commission of 1921. For a large scale depiction of the boundary, this series is recommended. An accurate representation of the boundary is found on Army Map Service 1:50,000 scale (Series M-704) Sheets 4378 I, 4378 IV, 4379 III, 4278 I, 4279 II, 4279 III, 4179 II, 4178 I, 4178 IV, 4078 I, and 2624 II (M-708). A small-scale depiction of the boundary on a single sheet (also includes the Greece-Turkey boundary) is found on Army Map Service 1:1,000,000 scale (series 1301) sheet NK-35.





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n35i

Maps 2-20

International Boundary Study

NO. 50 - MAY 30, 1965

CHINA - NEPAL BOUNDARY



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

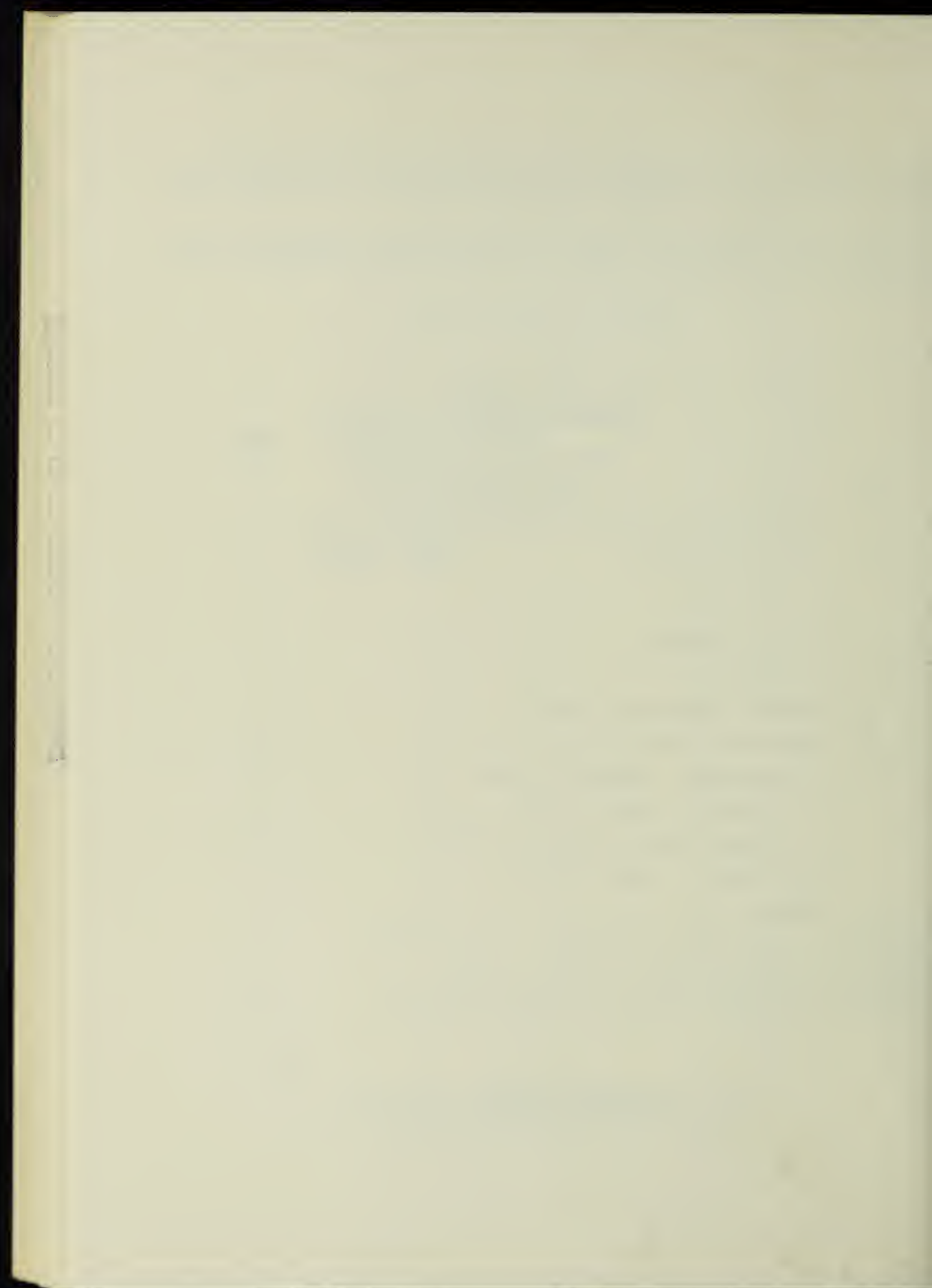
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China - Nepal Boundary

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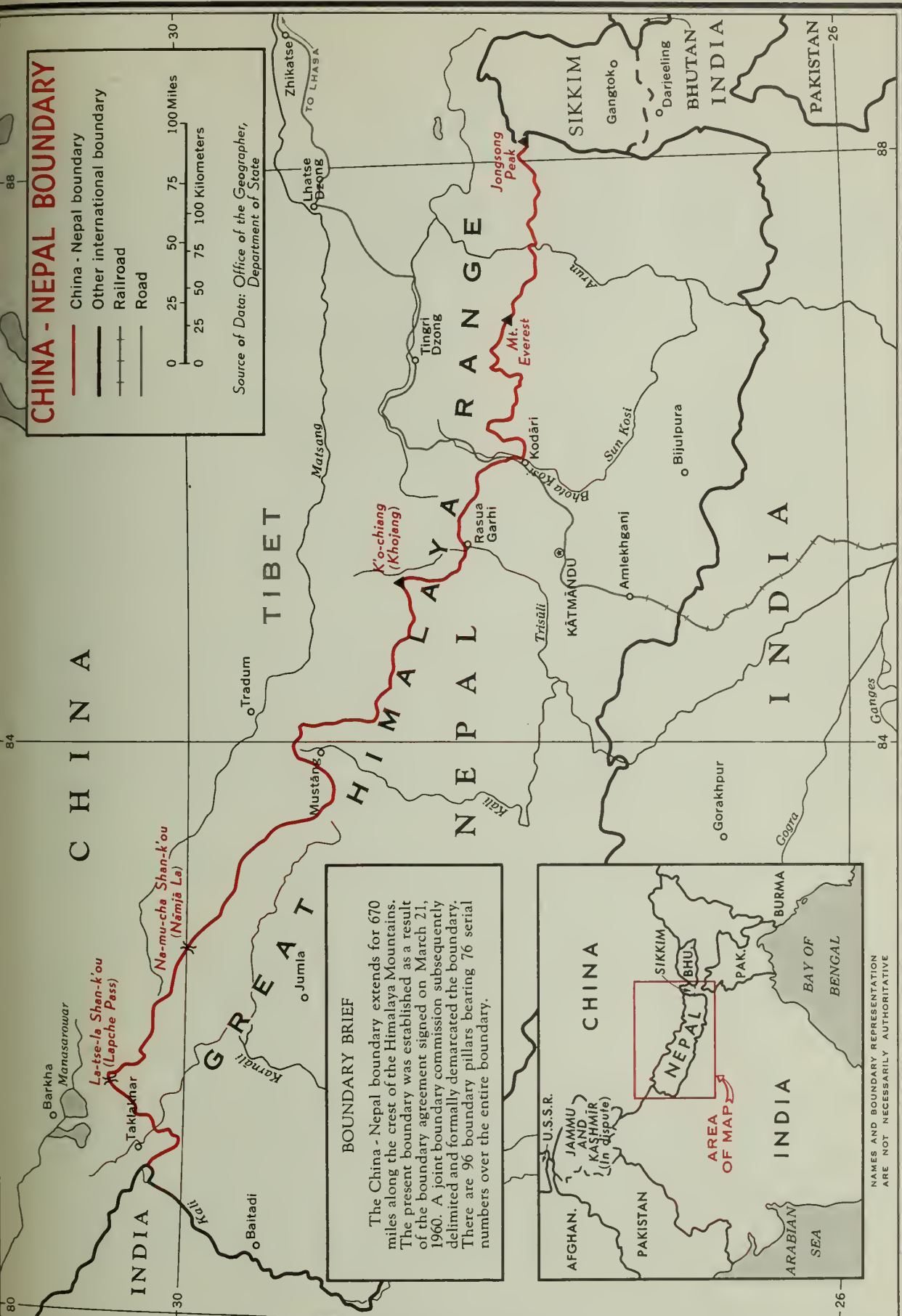


CHINA - NEPAL BOUNDARY

- China - Nepal boundary
- Other international boundary
- Railroad
- Road

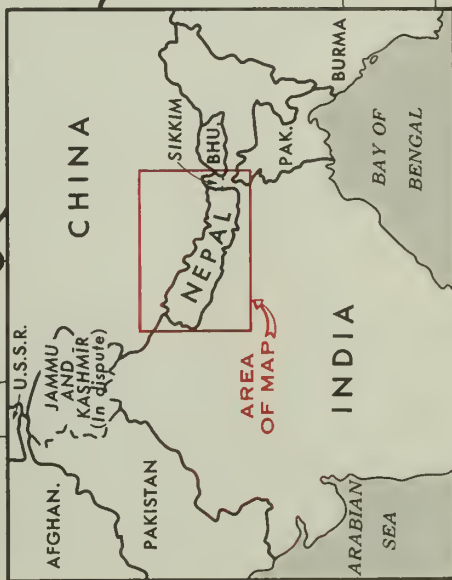
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Source of Data: Office of the Geographer,
Department of State

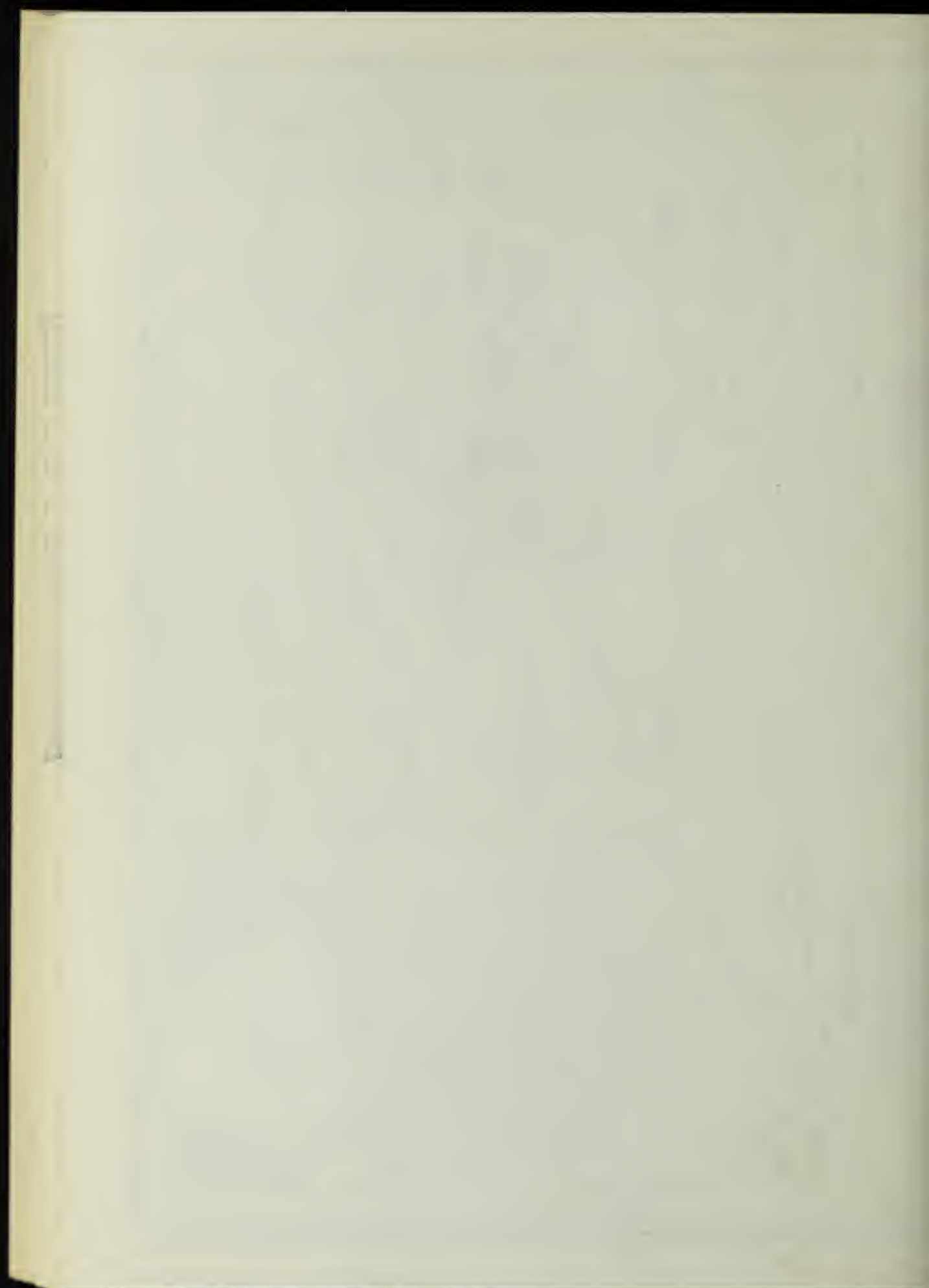


BOUNDARY BRIEF

The China - Nepal boundary extends for 670 miles along the crest of the Himalaya Mountains. The present boundary was established as a result of the boundary agreement signed on March 21, 1960. A joint boundary commission subsequently delimited and formally demarcated the boundary. There are 96 boundary pillars bearing 76 serial numbers over the entire boundary.



NAMES AND BOUNDARY REPRESENTATION
ARE NOT NECESSARILY AUTHORITY



CHINA - NEPAL BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The China - Nepal boundary extends for 670 miles along the crest of the Himalaya Mountains. The present boundary was established as a result of the boundary agreement signed between Nepal and Communist China on March 21, 1960. A joint boundary commission subsequently delimited and formally demarcated the boundary. There are 96 boundary pillars bearing 76 serial numbers over the entire boundary.

II. GEOGRAPHICAL BACKGROUND

A. Physical

The frontier region is dominated by the Himalaya. In the south, the zone of the Sub- or Outer Himalaya comprises a series of narrow, parallel ridges alternating with broad, longitudinal valleys. The peaks of this group rarely exceed 4,000 feet in elevation. Northward are the Middle Ranges of the Himalaya, which have a steep escarpment to the south and moderate slopes towards the north. In this group, peaks are between 5,000 and 15,000 feet in elevation. Beyond is the Inner or Greater Himalaya, a complex region of young, folded mountains, interrupted by faults and overthrusts. The main ranges are aligned generally west-northwest-east-southeast. Elevations range from 14,000 feet to over 29,000 feet in the great majesty of Mt. Everest (Chomolongma; Sagarmatha).

The China - Nepal boundary traverses the Great Himalaya Range, the highest mountains in the world. Jagged peaks, capped for the most part in perpetual snow, rise above towering ridge lines. Five peaks - Everest, Kinchinjunga, Makalu, Dhaulagiri and Annapurna - reach above 26,400 feet while most of the region exceeds 14,000 feet. Even the principal passes through the border range are almost all over 16,000 feet in elevation.

The many rivers and streams have cut steep ravine-like valleys through the Great Himalayan ranges. Tributaries of the Karnali, Kali, Kosi, and Arun rivers drain, in fact, the Tibetan slopes before turning south to cut through the ranges in deep gorges to flow to the Ganges.

North of the boundary ranges stretches the high Tibetan plateau. Here the nearly-level rock formations, averaging about 15,000 feet in elevation, dip gently northward to the valley of the Tsang Po (Brahmaputra).

Climatic variation in the border region occurs vertically. Above 14,000 feet there exists a zone of perpetual frost. Below this elevation, winters are hard and long; summers short and cool. Certain hardy root crops may be grown but grains generally will not mature above 10,000 feet. With the exception of a few valleys, the entire region may be classified as a waste land, almost without habitation.

B. Historical

The Himalayan region has been a zone of transition between Indian and Tibetan influences which have interacted with the indigenous culture. Much of Nepal's early recorded history deals with the rise and fall of local kingdoms whose area of rule often overlapped the present borders with India and Tibet. By the 13th Century, Hindus, including Rajputs, began to migrate to southern and Western Nepal as a result of dislocations caused by the Muslim invasion of the subcontinent. By the beginning of the 19th Century the Rajput-infused Gurkha Kingdom had become the dominant force in Nepal. The Kingdom began a period of active expansion which brought it into conflict with British and Sikh power in the south and Tibetan power in the north. The climax of this period was the Nepal-Tibet war of 1854-56. The treaty of 1856 between

the two powers forced the cession of certain territories to Nepal and required Tibet to pay an annual sum to the Gurkha monarch.

After the Nepalese-Tibetan War the Gurkha Kingdom followed a policy of isolation and relations between Nepal and Tibet remained relatively calm.

C. Socio-Economic

The distribution of the frontier population is directly related to the agricultural potential of the land. Consequently, along the frontier region, great variations exist. Vast tracts of high mountains are virtually uninhabited while the small, flat valleys contain the main concentrations. In the vicinity of the boundary, almost all settlement occurs in village agglomerations. In size these range in direct proportion to the amount of useful agricultural and pasture land in the immediate vicinity. The western portion of the frontier, which is drier, tends to have a lower density than the more humid central and eastern sectors.

On both sides of the boundary, the population is predominantly Buddhist and of Tibeto-Burman stock. Countless migrations and invasions, however, have produced a very complex settlement pattern. Unfortunately, very few detailed ethnic studies have been made on the Tibet - Nepal boundary area. The frontier tribes are collectively referred to as the Bhotias, which includes, among many others, the well-known Sherpas. The Bhotia tribes probably represent the most recent migrants into the area. Stemming originally from Tibet, these people have moved freely back and forth across the border in recent times leading to difficulties in frontier administration. Since the Dalai Lama fled from Tibet in 1959, many additional Tibetan refugees have moved into the Nepalese section of the frontier.

The region gains considerable importance as a result of the transit trade between India and Nepal on one hand and Tibet on the other. For countless centuries, the contrasting economies of the areas have been loosely integrated. Traditionally, salt, wool, and hides flowed from north to south while cereals, tea, and spices were sent to Tibet. The present value of the trade is not known.

Currently, the Chinese are building a road to connect Lhasa and Katmandu. The significance of such a road would be considerable from the economic as well as the strategic view. Nepalese-Tibetan trade, which has been declining in recent years, may increase as a result of this new road link.

D. Political

As elsewhere in Asia there was little traditional concern on the part of Tibet or Nepal over a delimited border. Negotiations took place over trading rights, control of trade routes and territorial taxation privileges. The British Survey of India maps showed a border between Nepal and Tibet which served as an acceptable de facto border in the absence of control of the High Himalaya area by either power.

The growth of nationalism in the 20th Century and the increasing awareness of the value of well-defined borders to eliminate sources of friction led to serious consideration of the need to define legally the Nepal-Tibet border. Questions of trans-frontier crime, ownership of disputed areas and occasional armed clashes in the border region stimulated formal consideration of the points of dispute. Concern over these problems ultimately led to the China-Nepal border treaty of 1960. Since the treaty, some questions of territorial claims have arisen. The exact number of territorial disputes has never been ascertained, but as many as 20 sectors may have been involved. The most serious disputes were located at Rasua (north of Katmandu), Kimathanka in the east, Nara Pass,

Tingribode near Mustang, Mount Everest, and the Nelu River. Most of these disputes were settled in favor of Nepal, although several favored China.

III. ANALYSIS OF BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

From the Indian tripoint in the west, located at approximately $81^{\circ} 00'$ East and $30^{\circ} 12' 45''$ North, the boundary extends southeastward along the water divide of the Himalaya to Ural Pass. Turning northward, the boundary joins the Karnali River between the villages of Chi Guan (Tibet) and Namrdhen (Nepal). The river forms the boundary downstream for approximately 2.25 miles before it returns to the water divide. At the Lapche Pass, the boundary attains its northernmost point. Continuing east-southeastward along the crest of the Great Himalaya, which serves as the water divide, the passes of the Manja, Thau, Marima, and Pindu are all situated on the border.

In the vicinity of Mustang, the boundary again abandons the major water divide to cut across the headwaters of both north-and south-flowing rivers. After departing from the Mustang region, the boundary regains the water divide at Chaklo (5076 meters); turning then at a right angle, the boundary continues southward to the peak of Lugula. There the border again resumes its normal east-southeastward trend through the Gyala and Lajing passes. The glaciated ridge of the Lajing Pahar, which is a minor water divide between tributaries of the Mawang Khola, is then followed to approximately $84^{\circ} 50'$ East and $28^{\circ} 35' 30''$ North. At this point, the boundary crosses the Mawang and then rejoins the main Himalayan ridge. At the peak Khojang, the boundary turns due south for approximately 25 miles before resuming the generally eastward trend at Saluasungo Danda (6613 meters).

In crossing the Trishuli river system, the boundary follows a very complex course. After utilizing the tributary Sajen Khola for 4.2 miles downstream, the boundary cuts across the interfluvium for 4.35 miles to join the Bulun Khola. This tributary forms the boundary for an additional 2.8 miles until the confluence of the Jambu Khola. The boundary turns upstream on the latter for approximately 13.4 miles before again mounting a minor water divide within the Bhotekosi River system. At the headwaters of the Kharane Khola, the boundary joins that stream to its confluence with the Bhotekosi which, in turn, forms the boundary downstream for approximately 2.5 miles. The left bank tributary of the Juma Khola is followed to Jar peak. Turning due north the boundary coincides with a main ridge line, crosses several tributaries of the Lapche Khola in order to leave Lapche Village within Nepal before turning again southward. Crossing another tributary on the Nyule Bridge, the Sino-Nepalese border again attains the major water divide of the Himalaya.

The boundary, in the next sector, passes through the peaks of Mount Everest and Makalu making it the highest international boundary in the world. After bisecting Popti Pass, it seeks the minor water divide south of the Karna Chhu to join this stream west of Kimathanka. Following it downstream the boundary then joins the minor divide between the Chusbar Chhu and the Wakang Khola to the major divide at Rakha Pass. Eastward to Jonsang peak, the Sikkim tripoint (24,500 feet), the divide and the border coincide.

IV. TREATIES AND OTHER ACTS

Several treaties were negotiated between Nepal and Tibet in the 18th and 19th centuries¹. These affected the boundary by transferring areas or defining

¹ See C. U. Aitchison (ed.), A Collection of Treaties, Engagements, and Sanads..., vol. 14.

portions of areas along the boundary. However, the limits were most often vague or contradictory and it became impossible to draw an exact boundary from their descriptions. The Sino-Nepalese treaty of 1792, for example, appears to give territories south of the Himalaya to Tibet but the exact provisions are unclear. The March 24, 1856 treaty of peace between the Gurkha Kingdom and Tibet cedes to Nepal the ryots of Kerong, Kutu, Junga, Tagla Khar, Chewur, and Dhakling without specific detail as to their limits. It does state, however, that Gurkha troops north of the Bhairab Langar range were to be withdrawn, thus hinting at a de facto border.

Listed below are the recently negotiated series of treaties and other acts which have defined the boundary with relative precision:

A. Agreement to maintain the friendly relations between the Kingdom of Nepal and the People's Republic of China signed on September 20, 1950.

The agreement primarily concerned trade and intercourse between Nepal and the "Tibet region of China." However, Article III states that "All treaties and documents which existed in the past between Nepal and China including those between Nepal and the Tibet Region of China are hereby abrogated."

B. Agreement between the Government of the People's Republic of China and His Majesty's Government of Nepal signed on March 21, 1960 (See Appendix I).

The boundary agreement stipulated that the "traditional customary line" would serve as the basis for a boundary treaty. The boundary was to be determined and demarcated 1) where maps of both sides agree, and 2) according to local jurisdiction or administration where they did not. A Joint China-Nepal Boundary Commission was created to examine the evidence and to delimit the entire boundary.

A great deal of confusion has existed on the number of places in dispute and their location. Almost every discussion on the boundary lists three or four points of dispute, but the places are rarely the same. In any event, no great amount of territory was involved; one estimate places it at 200 sq. mi. The Chinese Communists appear to have deferred ultimately to the Nepalese point of view as they did earlier with Burma and did later with Pakistan and Afghanistan. The position contrasts sharply with the intransigent attitude towards India and the U.S.S.R.

The Joint Commission held the following sessions:

- a) First, from August 12, to October 26, 1960 in Katmandu
- b) Second, January 1, to February 15, 1961 in Peking
- c) Third, July 31 to August 24, 1961 in Katmandu
- d) Fourth, October 1 to October 5, 1961 in Peking.

The Commission and its subsidiary Joint Survey Teams produced the detailed delimitation based upon common agreement for the entire frontier. The position of Mt. Everest was regarded as special and fell to the heads of government for decision.

C. Boundary Treaty between the People's Republic of China and the Kingdom of Nepal signed on October 5, 1961 (See Appendix II).

The complete delimitation of the boundary created by the Joint Commission became Article I. Article II defined the boundary in all streams as the median line and provided for the continuation of that line in the event of a change of river course. Article III directed the Joint Commission to draft a demarcation protocol to be incorporated into the treaty.

The Joint Commission met in Fifth and Sixth sessions to complete its work. The boundary was divided into six divisions and a joint team was despatched to each to perform the demarcation work. In all, 99 boundary pillars numbered from 1 through 79 were to be set on the boundary. The numbering ran from west to east: Nos. 33, 37, and 38, however, could not be placed due to geographic difficulties.

D. Protocol to the Nepal - China Boundary Treaty signed on January 23, 1963.

The final demarcation work of the Joint Commission was embodied in the Protocol. Part I concerned general arrangements; Part II contained the final detailed delimitation; Part III, the details of the erection of the pillars; Part IV, maintenance of the pillars; and Part V, a concluding section.

The protocol apparently has not been made public as is often typical with technical demarcation documents.

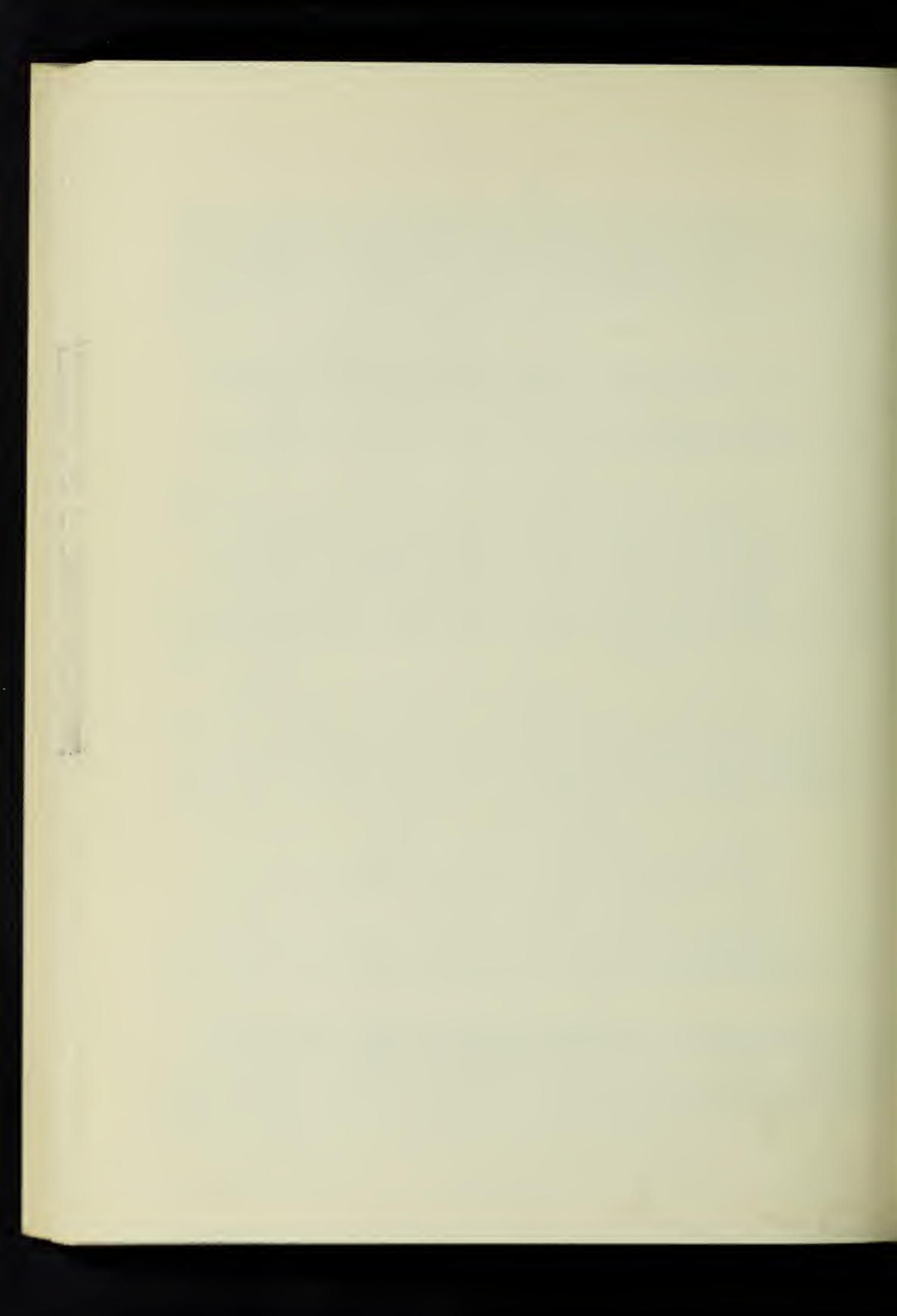
V. SUMMARY

The 1960, 1961, and 1963 agreements between Nepal and the Communist regime on the Chinese mainland were aimed at removing the causes of friction on the alignment of the common boundary. The United States Government, however, recognizes the Republic of China as the legitimate government of China. As a consequence, the Nepalese-Tibetan boundary may be considered as an accepted international boundary, i.e., one that is delimited and demarcated, in a *de facto* sense and so shown on official United States maps. However, in view of the United States recognition of the Republic of China, all official maps should bear the standard disclaimer that the "representation of boundaries is not necessarily authoritative."

For compilation purposes, the following maps, annexed to the boundary treaty, may be utilized:

- a) Map of the area of Sino-Nepalese Frontier (Western Section),
1:500,000, Map A;
- b) Map of the Sino-Nepalese Frontier-Line (Eastern Section),
1:500,000, Map B;
- c) Map of the area of the Sino-Nepalese Frontier-Line...
 - 1) From Urai Pass to Nalakankar Pass, 1:50,000,
Map No. 2
 - 2) From the elevation of 6214.1 Meters to Chaklo,
1:50,000, Map No. 3
 - 3) From Gyala Bhanjhan to Thaple Bhanjhan, 1:50,000,
Map No. 4
 - 4) From Yangra Himal to Chusumdo, 1:50,000,
Map No. 5
 - 5) From Ch'ueh-mo-pa-ma-je to Nyule Bridge, 1:50,000,
Map No. 6
 - 6) From Potpi Pass to Rakha Pass, 1:50,000,
Map No. 7

The maps show a considerable positional shift of places along the frontier from the representation on official British and American maps. Since the quality and accuracy of the base line and survey is not known, the grid references on the treaty maps should be treated with caution. It is possible, however, to establish the "new" boundary on U.S. maps in relation to the plotted position of the significant features.



APPENDIX I

A full text of the Nepal-China Border Treaty, March 21, 1960, is not available to the Office of the Geographer. However, the following has been excerpted from Padma Bahadur Khatri: "Nepal - China Sima Sandhi" (Nepal-China Border Treaty), Gorkhapatra, Volume 63, Issue No. 313, Falgun 24, 2018 March 7, 1962, pp. 2-3).

"It has been decided to conclude an agreement with a view to establishing a definite boundary line and formally delineating the boundary between the two countries, to set up a Joint Committee composed of an equal number of delegates from the two sides and to entrust it with powers to discuss and solve the concrete problems concerning the Nepal - China border, under the rules mentioned in Article 3 of the present Agreement, to install boundary pillars and, lastly, to prepare a draft of the Nepal - China Boundary Treaty. The said Joint Committee shall hold its meetings in the capitals or other places of Nepal and China.

"While studying the boundary lines as shown in the exchanged maps and also the information made available by each side, concerning the actual jurisdiction of the respective countries, the Contracting Parties agree, that barring some differences over some particular area, their understanding of the traditional customary boundary line is basically the same. In order to determine concretely the boundary between the two countries, the Contracting Parties agree to act as follows in three different cases.

- (1) Areas where the boundary line between the two countries as shown in the maps of both the parties is identical.

The boundary line in such areas shall be determined according to that shown as identical in the maps of both sides. The Joint Committee shall send out Joint Survey teams composed of an equal number of persons from each side to conduct survey and erect boundary pillars there.

When the boundary line is determined according to the provisions of the above Article, the areas to the South shall conclusively belong to Nepal, and those to the North to China, and subsequent to that neither party shall lay claim to any area on the other side.

- (2) Areas where the boundary line between the two countries as shown in the maps of both parties is not identical, although the actual jurisdiction is undisputed.

The Joint Committee shall send out Joint Survey Teams composed of an equal number of persons from each side to conduct surveys on the spot and install boundary pillars to determine the boundary line according to the physical features (watersheds, valleys, passes, etc.) and the actual jurisdiction of the respective party.

- (3) Areas where the boundary line as shown in the maps is not identical and each side has its own understanding of such jurisdiction.

In such areas the Joint Committee shall send out Joint Survey teams composed of an equal number of persons from each side in order to find out the actual jurisdiction, make adjustments according to the principles of equality, mutual benefit, friendship and mutual accommodation, demarcate the boundary and to install boundary pillars."

APPENDIX II

"Boundary Treaty Between the People's Republic of China and the Kingdom of Nepal" October 5, 1961:

The Chairman of the People's Republic of China and His Majesty the King of Nepal,

Being of the agreed opinion that a formal settlement of the question of the boundary between China and Nepal is of fundamental interest to the peoples of the two countries,

Noting with satisfaction that the friendly relations of long standing between the two countries have undergone further development since the establishment of diplomatic relations between the two countries and that the two parties have, in accordance with the Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence and in a spirit of fairness, reasonableness, mutual understanding, and mutual accommodation, smoothly achieved an over-all settlement of the boundary question between the two countries through friendly consultations,

Firmly believing that the formal delimitation of the entire boundary between the two countries and its consolidation as a boundary of peace and friendship not only constitute a milestone in the further development of the friendly relations between China and Nepal, but also are a contribution toward strengthening peace in Asia and the world,

Have resolved for this purpose to conclude the present treaty on the basis of the agreement between the Government of the People's Republic of China and His Majesty's Government of Nepal on the question of the boundary between the two countries of 21 March 1960 and have agreed upon the following:

Article I.

The contracting parties, basing themselves on the traditional customary boundary line and having jointly conducted necessary on-the-spot investigations and surveys and made certain adjustments in accordance with the principles of equality, mutual benefit, friendship, and mutual accommodation, hereby agree on the following alignment of the entire boundary line from west to east, Chinese territory being north of the line and Nepalese territory south thereof:

1--The Chinese-Nepalese boundary line starts from the point where the watershed between the Kali River and the Tinkar River meets the watershed between the tributaries of the Mapchu (Karnali) River on the one hand and the Tinkar River on the other hand, thence it runs southeastward along the watershed between the tributaries of the Mapchu (Karnali) River on the one hand and the Tinkar River and the Seti River on the other hand, passing through the Niumachisa (Lipudhura) Snowy Mountain ridge and Tinkarlipu (Kipudhura) Pass to Pehlin (Urai) Pass.

2--From Pehlin (Urai) Pass the boundary line runs along the mountain ridge southeastward for about 500 meters, then northeastward to height 5,655 meters, thence continues to run along the mountain ridge northwestward to Tojang (Tharodhunga Tuppa), then northeastward passing through height 5,580.6 meters to Chimala Pass, thence it runs generally northwestward, passing through Chimala to Lungmochiehkua (Numoche Tuppa); thence, the boundary line runs generally eastward, passing through Paimowotunkuo (Kitko Tuppa) and then runs along the Chokartung (Kitko) Mountain spur down to the Chilungpa (Yadangre)

stream, then it follows the Chilungpa (Yadangre) stream northward to its junction with the Mapchu (Karnali) River, then it follows the Mapchu (Karnali) River generally eastward to Yusa (Hilsa). At Yusa (Hilsa) the boundary line departs from the Mapchu (Karnali) River and runs northeastward along the mountain spur up to Chialosa (Takule), then along the mountain ridge, passing through Kumalatse (Kumalapche), Kangpaochekuo (Ghanbochheko), and Mainipaimikuo (Manepamango) to Kangkuona (Kangarje), then northward passing through Ka gchupeng (Kandumbu) (at?) height 6,550 meters to Nalakankar.

3--From Nalakankar the boundary line runs generally northeastward along the watershed between the tributaries flowing into Manasarovar Lake and the tributaries of the Humla Karnali River passing through Nalakankar Pass to Latsela (Lapche) Pass; thence it runs generally southeastward along the watershed between the tributaries flowing into Manasarovar Lake and the tributaries of the Machuan River on the one hand and the tributaries of the Humla Karnali River, the Mugu Karnali River and the Panjang Khola on the other hand, passing through Changla Mountain, Namja Pass, Khung (Thau) Pass, and Marem Pass to Pindu Pass, then it continues to run southeastward along the watershed between the tributaries of the Machuan River on the one hand and the tributaries of the Barbung River and the Kali Gaudaki River on the other hand gradually turning northeastward to height 6,214.1 meters.

4--From height 6,214.1 meters, the boundary line runs northeastward along the mountain spur, passing through height 5,025 meters and crossing the Angarchhubo (Angarchhu) stream to height 5,029 meters; thence it runs generally eastward along the Tuchu (Thukchu) Mountain spur, passing through height 4,730 meters and Bungla (Panglham) to the foot of Tingli Bhodho spur at its northwestern end, then turns northeastward and runs along the southern bank of the Roumachushiu (Rhamarchhushu) seasonal stream to the foot of Tingli Bhodho spur at its northeastern end; thence turns southeastward, crosses the junction of two seasonal streams flowing northward, and runs to the junction of three seasonal streams flowing northward, and then up the eastern stream of the above three seasonal streams to height 4,697.9 meters, then turns southwestward crossing a seasonal stream to height 4,605.8 meters; thence it runs generally southeastward passing through Pengpengla (Phumphula) and then along Chukomaburi (Chhukomapo) Mountain ridge, passing through height 4,676.6 meters and height 4,754.9 meters to height 4,798.6 meters, thence along the mountain ridge northeastward passing through Hsiabala, then generally eastward passing through height 5,044.1 meters to Chaklo.

5--From Chaklo the boundary line runs generally southward along the watershed between the tributaries of the Yalu Tsangpo River and the tributaries of the Kali Gandaki River, passing through height 6,724 meters to Lugula Pass, thence it runs generally eastward along Lugula Snowy Mountain and the watershed between the tributaries of the Yalu Tsangpo River and the tributaries of the Marshiyangdi River to Gya (Gyala) Pass.

6--From Gya (Gyala) Pass the boundary line runs along the mountain ridge eastward to height 5,782 meters, then southeastward to Lajing Pass, then it runs along the Lajing Mountain ridge, passing through height 5,442 meters and Lachong (Lajung) Pass to height 5,236 meters, then turns southwestward to Sangmudo Snowy Mountain; thence generally southeastward and continues to run along the Lajing Mountain ridge, passing through height 6,139 meters to height 5,494 meters, and then in a straight line crosses the Dougar (Tom) River to height 5,724 meters; thence the boundary line runs generally northeastward along the Snowy Mountain ridge, passing through height 6,010

meters, height 5,360 meters, and height 5,672 meters to Thaple Pass.

--From Thaple Pass the boundary line runs generally northeastward along the Snowy Mountain ridge, passing through Tsariyangkang Snowy Mountain to Khojan; thence it continues to run generally southward along the Snowy Mountain ridge, passing through Mailatsaching Pass, Pashuo Snowy Mountain and Lango Snowy Mountain to Yangrenkangri (Yangra) Snowy Mountain.

--From Yangrenkangri (Yangra) Snowy Mountain the boundary line runs along the mountain ridge southward to Tsalasungkuo and then generally eastward and then northeastward along a dry stream bed and passes through Kirapo (Kerabas) to reach the Sangching (Sanjen) River, then follows that river southeastward, passes through its junction with the Changchieh (Bhrangre) River and continues to follow the Sangching (Sanjen) River to a point where a small mountain spur south of Genjungma (Pangshung) pasture ground and north of Chhaharey (pasture?) ground meets with the Sangching (Sanjen) River; then it runs along the (above all?) mountain spur eastward and then southeastward to height 4,565.4 meters, then runs eastward to the Black Top; thence it runs along a mountain spur to the junction of the Bhurlung River and the Tanghsiaka (Khesadhang) stream, then runs eastward along the Bhurlung River to its junction with the Kyerong River; thence follows the Kyerong River southward and then eastward to its junction with the Tungling Tsangpo (Lende) River; then runs northeastward up the Tungling Tsangpo (Lende) River, passing through Rasua bridge to the junction of the Tungling Tsangpo (Lende) River and the Guobashiachu (Jambu) stream; thence turns eastward up the Guobashiachu (Jambu) stream, passing through the junction of the Chusumdo Tsangpo River and the Phuriphu Tsangpo River, both tributaries of the upper Guobashiachu (Jambu) stream, to reach the boundary marker-point at Chusumdo.

From the boundary marker-point at Chusumdo the boundary line runs generally southeastward along the ridge of Tsogakangri (Seto Pokhari) Snowy Mountain, Ngatang Snowy Mountain, Dorley Mountain, and Gulinchin (Phurbo Chyachu) Mountain to Chakesumu (Kharaney) Mountain; thence runs down to reach the Angnibachu (Kharaney) River, and then follows that river southward to its junction with the Bhochu (Bhota Kosi) River; then follows the Bhochu (Bhota Kosi) River southward, pushing through Dalaima (Bhaise) bridge to the junction of the Bhochu (Bhota Kosi) River and the Junchu (Jum) River; thence eastward up the Junchu (Jum) River to its source at Tsaje Mountain (um Khola Ko Sir Ko Tuppa); thence the boundary line runs generally northward along the mountain ridge to Chomo Pamari (height: 6,208.8 meters).

--From Chomo Pamari (height 6,208.8 meters) the boundary line runs generally northward along the mountain ridge to height 5,914.8 meters, then generally northeastward along Shondemo Kangri (Sudemo) Snowy Mountain passing through height 5,148 meters, and then crosses two tributaries of the Shondemo Chu (Shongdemo) Stream, passing through Shondemo (Sudemo) which lies between the above two tributaries to Gyanbyan; then it runs along Gyanbyan Mountain downward, crosses the Pinbhu Tsangpo River (the western Tributary of the Lapche River--Ed.) and then along the mountain spur up to height 5,370.5 meters at Sebobori (Korlang Pari Ko Tippa); thence the boundary line turns southeastward along the mountain spur downward, crosses the Lapche Khung Tsangpo River (the eastern tributary of the Lapche river--Ed.), then it runs along Biden Kangri (Pidung) Snowy Mountain to height 5,397.2 meters; thence the boundary line turns westward along the mountain ridge to height 5,444.2 meters at Kabobori (Raling), then generally southward along Sumkungpo (Rishinggumbo) Mountain ridge to Niehlu (Niule) bridge.

11--From Nighlu (Niule) bridge the boundary line runs generally eastward to Chejenma (Guari Smankar), and then eastward along the mountain ridge and then northward along the watershed between the Rongshar River and the Rongbuk River on the one hand and the tributaries of the Dudh Kosi River on the other hand to Nagpa Pass, and then runs generally southeastward along the mountain ridge, passing through Cho Oyu Mountain, Pumoli Mountain (Gnire Langur), mount Chomo-lungma (Sagarmatha) and Lhotse, to Makalu Mountain; then runs south-eastward and then eastward along the mountain ridge to Popti Pass.

12--From Popti Pass the boundary line runs along the mountain ridge eastward passing through Tsagala (Kepu Dada) to Kharala (Khade Dada), and then generally northeastward passing through Lanapo (Lhanakpu) and Chebum (Chhipung) to the source of the Sunchunchu (Shumjung) River; then it follows the Sunchunchu (Shumjung) River to its junction with the track leading from Kimathangka to Chentang; then it runs along the track to the bridge on the Karma Tsangpo (Kama) River; thence it runs generally southeastward along the Karma Tsangpo (Kama) River passing through its junction with the Pengchu (Arun) River, and then along the Pengchu (Arun) River to its junction with the Nadang River, then continues to follow the Pengchu (Arun) River westward to its junction with the Tsokangchingpo (Chhokang) River, thence the boundary line departs from the Pengchu (Arun) River and runs generally eastward along a mountain spur passing through Angde and Dalai (Tale) Pass to Dalaila (Tale), and then runs along the mountain ridge passing through Jungkan (Dukan), Kaijungkan (Khachunkha), Renlangbu (Relinbu) and Sulala to reach Rag La (Rakhala) Pass.

13--From Rag La (Rakhala) Pass the boundary line runs generally eastward along the watershed between the tributaries of the Nadang River and the tributaries of the Yaru River on the one hand and the tributaries of the Ramur River on the other hand, passing through Ombolap (Ombak) Pass, the Putala (Tiptala) Pass, Yangmakhangla (Kangla) Pass and Chabukla to the terminal point where the watershed between the Khar River and the Chabuk River meets the watershed between the Khar River and the Lhonak River.

The entire boundary line between the two countries as described in the present article is shown on the 1:500,000-scale maps of the entire boundary attached to the present treaty; the location of the temporary boundary markers erected by both sides and the detailed alignment of certain sections of the boundary are shown on the 1:500,000-scale maps of those sections attached to the present treaty.

Article II.

The contracting parties have agreed that wherever the boundary follows a river, the midstream line shall be the boundary. In case a boundary river changes its course, the original line of the boundary shall remain unchanged in the absence of other agreements between the two parties.

Article III.

After the signing of the present treaty the Chinese-Nepalese Joint Boundary Committee, constituted in pursuance of the agreement of 21 March 1960 between the two parties on the question of the boundary between the two countries, shall set up permanent boundary markers as necessary on the boundary line between the two countries, and then draft a protocol setting forth in detail the alignment of the entire boundary line and the location of the permanent boundary markers, with detailed maps attached thereto showing the boundary line and the location of the permanent boundary markers. The above-mentioned

protocol, upon being signed by the governments of the two countries, shall become an annex to the present treaty and the detailed maps shall replace the maps now attached to the present treaty.

Upon the signing of the above-mentioned protocol, the tasks of the Chinese-Nepalese Joint Boundary Committee shall be terminated, and the agreement of 21 March 1960 between the two parties on the question of the boundary between the two countries shall cease to be in force.

Article IV.

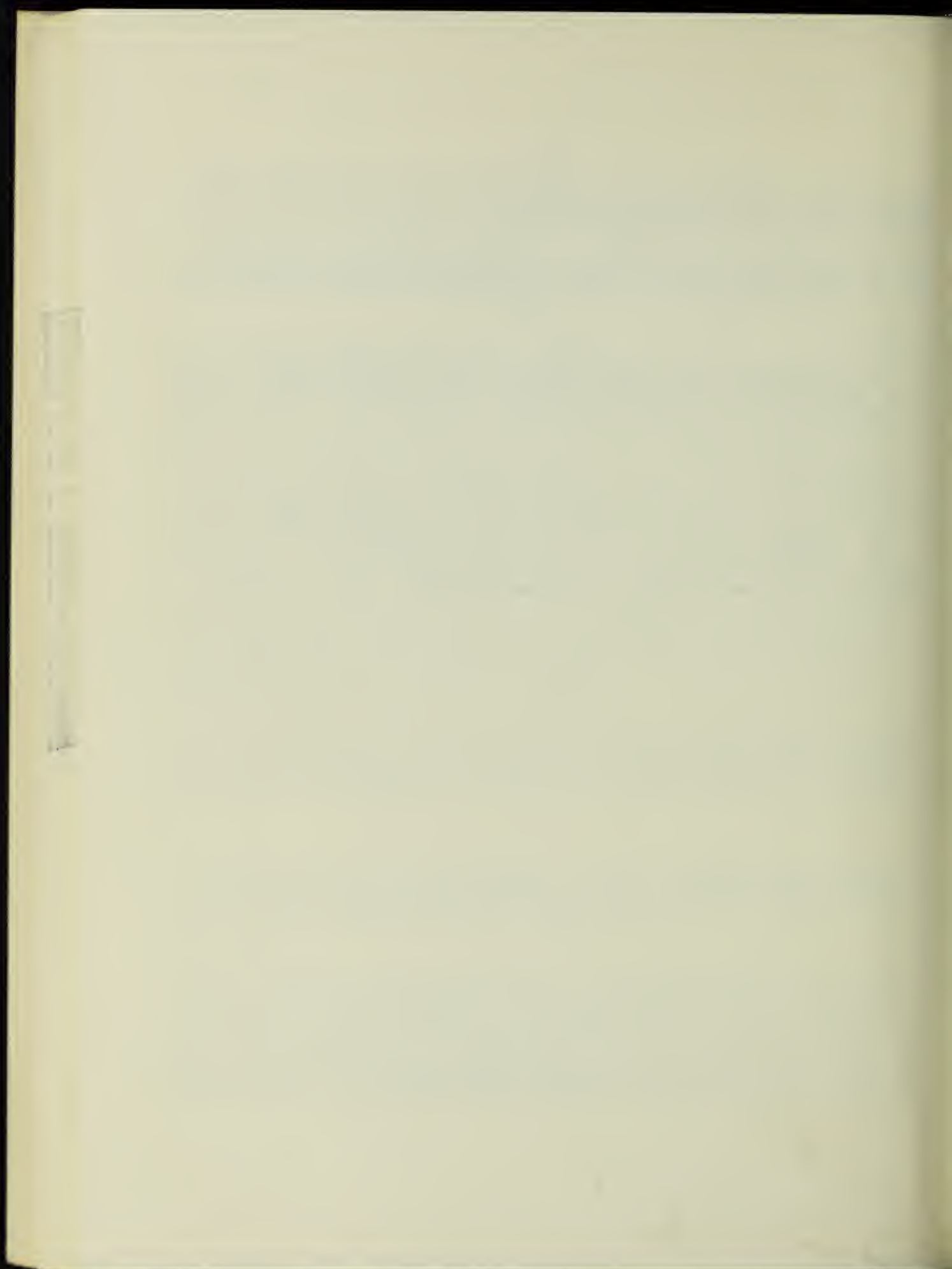
The contracting parties have agreed that any dispute concerning the boundary which may arise after the formal delimitation of the boundary between the two countries shall be settled by the two parties through friendly consultations.

Article V.

The present treaty shall come into force on the day of the signing of the treaty.

Done in duplicate in Peking on 5 October 1961 in the Chinese, Nepalese, and English languages: all three texts being equally authentic.

Chairman of the People's Republic of China, His Majesty the King of Nepal.
(Signed) Liu Shao-chi, Mahendra Bir Bikram Shah Deva.



APPENDIX III

Nepalese

Andde
Barbung Khola
Barchham Gaun (Village)
Bhaise Pul (Bridge)
Bhasyaro
Bhasyaro Chhachyuna
Bhembo
Bhotekosi River
Bhrangaun (Village)
Bhrangre Khola (River)
Bhulung Khola (River)
Bidin Himal (Mt)
Bitara Khola
Bodomaro
Bulun Khola (River)
Burhigandaki
Bware
Chabukala Pass
Chaklo
Chaklo
Chaldan
Cha Nba
Changla
Chango
Chauphyan
Chauri Danda (Mt)
Chauri Kharka (Corral)
Chentan
Chesypa
Chha
Chhaijya
Chhare Kharka (Corral)
Chhepa
Chhesamba
Chhimachule
Chhimala
Chhinjala
Chhipung
Chhitoranan Tuppa
Chhochhin
Chhogau (Village)
Chhokarthan
Chhugar
Chhumine
Chhukomapo
Chhumre
Chhyakjyaldhumbho
Chichho
Chi Gaun (Village)
Chimala
Chimala Pass
Chipuchyu
Chodan
Cho-oyu
Chumba
Chumbasero
Chusumdo
Chusumdo
Chyamba
Chyurapunge
Dagajhyabra
Dampaja
Dharangalabje
Dhemuphu
Dhudhedhunga
Dhura Danda
Diweg
Dodherma
Dorle Pahar (Hill, Mt.)
Dukan
Gauri Kharka (Corral)
Ganjer
Ganmu Chhi

Chinese

Ang-tui
Pa-erh-peng Ho
Pa-erh-chang
Ta-lai-ma Ch'lao
Pa-hsueh
Pa-hsueh-ch'uan
Pen-po
Po-ta-k'o-hsi' Ho
Chang-kang
Chang-chieh Ho
Pu-lung Ho
Pi-ting-k'ang-jih
K'o-yang-lung-pa
Po-to-ma-erh-po
Pu-lung Ho
Pu-li-ya Ho
Tung-wa-jih
Ch'a-pu-k'o-la
Ch'a-k'o-lo
Ch'ia-k'o-lo
Cha-erh-tang
Cha-cha
Ch'lang-k'o-la Shan
Ch'ang-kuo
Cho-pan
Tsung-jih-la
Tsung-jih
Ch'en-t'ang
Che-hslu-pa
Ts'a
Ts'ai-chia
Ts'a-je
T'zu-ya
Ch'leh-peng-pa
Ch'l-ma-cho-le-kuo
Ch'in-ma-la
Ch'in-chia-la
Ch'leh-peng
Ch'i-tu-erh-lang-kuo
Ts'o-ch'in-p'a-k'en
Ts'o-kang
Ts'o-ka-t'ang
Ch'iu-pa
Ch'u-mi-le
Ch'u-ko-ma-pu-te
Ch'u-mei-je
Cha-chia-t'o-po
Chi-ts'ao
Chi-t'sun
Ch'l-ma-la
Ch'l-ma-la Shan-k'ou
Chi-pu-chlu
T'so-tang
Cho-pa Shan-k'ou
Ch'lung-ma
Chun-pa-hsueh-yao
Chu-sung-to
Ch'u-sung-to
Chiang-pa
Chueh-jih-a-pu-chi
Cha-chia-je-pu-la
T'ang-pa-chueh
Cha-chi-la-tse
Hsieh-mu-p'u
Wo-ma-to
Ting-k'o-jo-po-kuo
Cha-jo-la
To-to-ma
To-erh-lei Shan
Chu-k'ang
Ko-jih
Kang-tsai
Kuo-mu-ch'i

Gap
Gatheli
Gauri Shankar
Gejumba
Ghallawa
Ghambochhe
Ghanbochheko
Ghanja
Ghanle
Ghattekhol (Village)
Ghom
Ghejighin
Gogan
Guchhemba
Gumba
Gyala Bhanjhan (Pass)
Gyala Pass
Gyala Pass
Gyan Byan
Hillsa
Hilsa Tuppa
Hslabala
Humla Karnali River
Husya
Jambu Khola (River)
Jar Mt.
Jaro Kharka (Corral)
Jen Khola (River)
Jhayasipro
Jhonga [Jongka?]
Juma Khola
Jum Khola Bridge
Jyaktang
Kall River
Kaligangki [River]
Kalo Tuppa
Kalsing Danda (Mt)
Kalsinggarhi
Kalun
Kandumbu
Kangaja
Kangarje
Kangla Pass
Kanne
Karawas
Karnali River
Karnali River
Kasapan
Kawe
Kepu Danda (Mt)
Khachunkha
Khade Danda (Mt)
Kharane Khola (River)
Kharane Pahar (Hill)
Khar Khola (River)
Kharkon
Khojang
Khomba [Slya Chhu?] Khoka
Kildun
Kildun Bhanjyan (Pass)
Kimathanka
Kitko Tuppa
Koba
Kobanawakha
Kobangpari Tuppa
Kohin
Kolam Khola (River)
Kole
Kole
Korela
Koren Gaun (Village)
Krishnabyas
Kucho-oma

Ka-p'u
Ko-jih-la
Ch'ih-jen-ma
Ch'u-ku-lu
Hal-la-wa
Kang-pao-ch'leh
Kang-pao-ch'leh-kuo
Tang-cha
Kang-le
K'o-che-k'o-la-ts'un
Kuang
Chlang-ta
Kuo-k'ang
Ku-ch'eng-pa
Kung-Pa-la
Ko-ya Shan-k'ou
Ko-ya Shan-K'ou
K'o-ya Shan-k'ou
Chiang-pel-yang
Yu-sha
Kuo-o-kuo
Hsla-pa-la
Ku-na-k'a-na-li Ho
Wo-hsueh
Kuo-pa-ch'u Ho
Cha-jih Shan
Cha-jo
Sang-ch'ing Ho
Hsiang-hsing-cho
Tsung-ka
Tsung-ch'u Ho
Tsung-ch'iao
Chia-tang
Ka-li Ho
K'o-li-kan-ta-chi Ho
Heh [hel]-Shan-t'ou
Pan-teng-p'u
Tung-ch'a-jih-kang-pao
Ka-lung
Kang-chu-peng
Kang-kou-na
Kang-kuo-na
Yang-ma-k'ang-la Shan-k'ou
Kang-le
Chi-je-p'u
Kung-ch'ueh Ho
K'ung-ch'ueh Ho
K'ou-szu-pang
Ka-pu-je
Cha-ka-la
Kan-chu-k'ang
K'a-je-la
Ni-pa-ch'u Ho
Ch'ueh-k'o-su-mu Shan
K'a-erh Ho
K'o-erh-kung
K'o-chiang
Kuo-pa-hsla-cho Ho
Chi-tung
La-to-la
Chi-ma-t'ang
Pal-mo-wo-tung-kuo
Kuo-pa
Kuo-pa-nu-k'ang
Se-pao-po-je
Ku-yin
Ts'ang-tung-ch'u Ho
Kuo-le
K'uo-le
Kuo-jih-la
Kuo-jen
Su-ju
Kuo-chueh-o-ma-le

Kumalapche	Ku-ma-la-tse	Nangpa Pass	Lan-pa Shan-k'ou
Lajing Pass	La-ch'ing Shan-k'ou	Napulobu	Na-po-jo-jo
Lajing Bhanjhan (Pass)	La-ch'ing Shan-k'ou	Naralagna (Pass)	Na-la Shan-k'ou
Lajing Pahar (Mt)	La-ching Shan	Narpabhure	La-pao-po-je
Lajing Pahar (Mt)	La-ch'ing Shan	Nenamamma	Le-lang-ma
Lajyung Bhanjyan (Pass)	La-ch'ing Shan-k'ou	Nim Gaun (Village)	Ning-ts'un
Lambach	Lang-pa-chin	Nirelangar	P'u-mo-li Shan
Langja Khola	Tung-lin Ts'ang-pu Ho	Numache Tuppa	Lung-mo-ch'ieh-kou
Langpo Mt.	Pao Hsueh-shan	Numoche Tuppa	Lung-mo-ch'ieh-kuo
Lan'ang Mt.	Lan-t'an Hsueh-shan	Numochhhe Tuppa	Lung-mo-ch'ieh-kuo
Lan'ne Bridge	La-pu-chi ch'iao	Nyalam (Kuti)	Nieh-la-mu
Lapche Danda (Mt)	Se-erh-chia-kuo	Nyan Gaun (Village)	Niang-ts'un
Lapche Gumma [Gompa, temple]	La-pu-chi szu	Nyubasyu	Ni-hsiu-p'u
Lapche Kharka (Corral)	Ta-ko-lung	Nyule Bridge	Nieh-lu-ch'iao
Lapche Khola (River)	La-pu-chi Ho	Nyuli Bridge	Nieh-lu Ch'iao
Lapche Khola (River)	La-pu-chi-kung-tsang Ho	Palgchhi	Pang-pao-ch'i
Lapche Khola (River)	P'ing-pu-tsang-pu Ho	Palagan	Pa-la-kang
Lapche Pass	La-tse-la Shan-k'ou	Palakhu	Pa-lu-ku
Lapche Village	La-pu-chi T'sun	Palkhu	Pa-lu-ku
Larke Bazar	Pa-pu	Palten Gumba (Gompa, Monastery)	Pa-ti-kun-pa
Lau	Lao	Pama Kharka (Corral)	Pama
Lavi	La-pl	Pangalhama	Pang-ka-la
Lela	Lieh-na	Pangarchuryuna	Pang-ka-tzu
Lendeleko	Lin-ti-nai-kao	Pangin	Pang-chin
Lhanakpu	La-na-po	Panjang Khola (River)	P'eng-yang Ho
Lhogaun (Village)	Lo	Pansyun	Pang-hsiung
Lhonak Khola (River)	Lo-na Ho	Pansyun Kharka (Corral)	Chi-chueh-ma
Lhotse	Lo-tzu-feng	Panware Himal (Mt)	P'u-pa-ma-je
Ligaun (Village)	Li	Pasl	Pa-hsin
Limi Khola (River)	Ni-mi-ch'u Ho	Pedan	Pal-tang
Lipu Dhura Bhaiyan (Pass)	Ting-k'o-li-p'u-shan-k'ou	Pedan Danda (Mt)	Pal-tang-pel-la
Lipu Dhura Himal (Mt)	Niu-ma-chi-sha	Pengdingla	P'eng-ting-la
Loharikuna	La-cha	Phelagaun (Village)	P'al-la
Ludholba	Lu-chul-pa	Phola	P'u-la
Lugula Mt.	Lu-ku-la Hsueh-shan	Phula Channe	P'u-erh-ts'ang-le
Lugula Pass	Lu-ku-la Shan-k'ou	Phunphunla	Peng-peng-la
Lumanang	Lu-ma-lung-mu	Phunphunla	P'eng-p'eng-la
Lungjyo Danda (Mt)	Lung-cho	Phuri Himalaya (Mts.)	Pu-je-k'ang-jih
Lupachi	Lo-pu-tse	Phurphu	P'u-jul
Luri Himal (Mt)	Lieh-ju-k'ang-jih	Phurvo Chyachu Pahar	Ku-lin-ch'in Shan
Maduba	Cnang-hsiung	Pibl	P'l-pl
Mahbir [Honey Producing field]	Pu-lung-chang-ts'ang	Pindu Pass	P'ing-tu Shan-k'ou
Mallatsachling Pass	Mal-la-cha-ch'ing Shan-k'ou	Pocho Kharka (Corral)	Po-tso
Makalu	Ma-ka-lu Shan	Pohrl	Pao-jih
Mala Bhanjyan (Pass)	Ma-la Shan-k'ou	Poptl Pass	Po-ti Shan-k'ou
Mala Danda (Mt)	Ma-la-shan	Poptl Pass	Po-ti Shan-k'ou
Mala Kharka (Corral)	Mala	Pyang (Village)	Chiang-ts'un
Mala Khola (River)	Ma-la-ch'u Ho	Rakha Pass	Je-ka-la Shan-k'ou
Manasarowar	Ma-fa-mu-t'so	Rakha Pass	Je-ka-la Shan-k'ou
Manepeme	Ma-ni-pal-mi	Ralling	[Rendered in Nepalese only]
Manipamango	Mani-pai-mi-kuo	Ralling	K'o-pao-po-je
Marima Pass	Ma-erh-yng Shan-k'ou	Rasuagarhi	Je-so-a-ken
Marphula Danda (Mt)	Ma-po-la	Rasuwa	Je-so
Masyarangi River	Ma-hsun-ti Ho	Rasuwa Nura	Je-so-nu-je
Mesanjicha	Mal-sang-chieh-chia	Rasuwa Pul [Bridge]	Je-so-ch'ao
Meta Phu	Mal-to-p'u	Relnbu	Jen-jang-pu
Mugu	Mo-ku	Ridak (Piu)	Lei-ta-k'o (Pi-wu)
Murithawa	Mo-jih-t'a-wa	Rimu	Je-mu
Mustang	Mu-szu-t'ang	Risinggumbo	Je-sang-kung-pu
Nadang	Na-tang	Risinggumbo Danda	Je-sang-kung-pu-k'ang
Nadindin	Na-ting-ting	Risyon	Je-hsiung
Najalta Danda (Mt)	Chia-ka-lin-chin	Rombale	Jung-pa-le
Najalta Karka (Corral)	Na-chai-cha	Rongsyar (River)	Ts'ang-hsia Ho
Nala Kankar	Na-erh-k'ang-k'a	Rui Gaun (Village)	Ju-ts'un
Nalakankar	Na-erh-k'ang-k'a	Rula	Ju-na
Nala Kankar Pass	Na-erh-k'ang-ka Shan-k'ou	Sagarmatha [Mt. Everest]	Chu-mu-lang-ma-feng
Nalakankar Pass	Na-erh-k'ang-k'a Shan-k'ou	Sajen Khola (River)	Ch'ing Ho
Namardhen	Chi-chi-sung-tsung	Salasungo Danda (Mt)	Ch'a-la-sung-kuo
Nambachhe	Lang-pa-ch'ieh	Salle	Shale
Namdun	Lang-mu-tsung	Samadar Khola (River)	La-lung-ch'u Ho
Namja Pass	Na-mu-cha Shan-k'ou	Samagaon (Village)	Sha-ma-kang
Namka	Nang-mu-k'o	Samdo	Sang-mu-to
Namodu	Na-mo-tu	Samdo Mt.	Sang-mu-to Hsueh-shan

Samdo Himal (Mt)	Sang-mu-to-hsueh Shan
Sancho Gaun (Village)	Sang-cho
Sanga	Chuang-ka
Sarpe Bhanjyan (Pass)	Jung-pa-le-la
Satukhane	Sha-to-k'o-nieh
Satyangkang Mt.	Cha-te-yang-k'ang Hsueh-shan
Sawalgo	Sha-wei-kuo
Sayugajan	Ch'u-sang
Sebugaun (Village)	Se-pu
Sechhen	Se-ch'iung
Sejima	Se-chin-ma
Seti River	Se-t'ieh Ho
Seto Pokhari	Ts'o-ka-kang-jih
Seto Pokhari	Ts'o-ka-pao
Sichhare Gambu	Hsi-ch'a-jih-kang-pao
Singale	Chen-tsang-mu-le
Sipala	Hsi-pa-la
Siyabala	Hsia-pa-la
Siyar	Hsieh-erh
Sonam	Sung-na
Stonga Danda (Mt)	Szu-ting-la
Sulula	Su-lu-la
Sunadhar [or Sunaghar]	Se-k'ang-pa
Sundemo	Hsiung-te-mo
Sundemu Himal (Mt)	Hsiung-te-mo-k'ang-jih
Sungdemo Khola (River)	Hsiung-te-mo-ch'u Ho
Syale	Le
Syanchu	Hsiang-chih
Syandar	Hsiang-ta-erh
Takiakot	P'u-lan
Takmarchuchun	Cha-ma-erh-ching
Takule	Chia-lo-sha
Tala Mandir (Temple)	Ta-ia-szu
Tale Bhanjhang (Pass)	Ta-lai Shan-k'ou
Taleia	Ta-lai-la
Tale Pahar (Hill)	Ta-lai-la
Thadodunea Tuppa	To-jiang
Thajapa	T'a-ch'ia-pa
Thalama	T'ang-na-ma
Thangchhimbo	T'ang-ch'ing-P'o
Thaple Bhanjyan (Pass)	T'a-p'u-le Shan-k'ou
Thaple Pass	T'a-p'u-ie Shan-k'ou
Thau Pass	Kung Shan-k'ou
Thorje	To-erh-chieh
Thukchu	T'u-chu
Thulo Maia	Pi-erh-ma-la
Tijam Tuppa	Chen-ts'ang-kuo
Tilagaun (village)	Ti-erh
Timur	Ti-mu-je
Tingri	Ting-jih
Tinkar River	Ting-k'o Ho
Tinkunne Tuppa	Chiang-la
Tiptala Pass	Ch'e-pu-ta-la Shan-k'ou
Tirglibhodho	Ting-jih-po-to
Tokte	Cho-pao-te
Tongba Karka	Tung-pa-cha-t'ang
Tosl	To-hsin
Trishuli [Trisuli] River	Te-erh-su-li Ho
Umbak Pass	Weng-po-la Shan-k'ou
Unpa Pati	Wu-pa-Lung
Urai Pass	Pai-lin Shan-k'ou
Urai Pass	Pai-lin-shan-k'ou
Wala Mandir (Temple)	Wu-lu-szu
Yading	Ya-ting
Yala	Ya-lu
Yalusangpo [Brahmaputra]	Ya-lu-ts'an-pu Chiang
Yalusangpo [Brahmaputra] River	Ta-lu-ts'an-pu Chiang
Yangra	Yang-jan
Yangra Mt.	Yang-jan-k'ang-jih
Yangra Himal (Mt)	Yang-jan-k'ang-jih
Yaru Khola	Ta-lu Ho
Yuba Himalaya (Mt)	Jung-mu-je-k'ang-jih
Yunje	Yun-chieh

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Map 126

International Boundary Study

NO. 51 - JUNE 1, 1965

CONGO (Leopoldville) - TANZANIA BOUNDARY



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

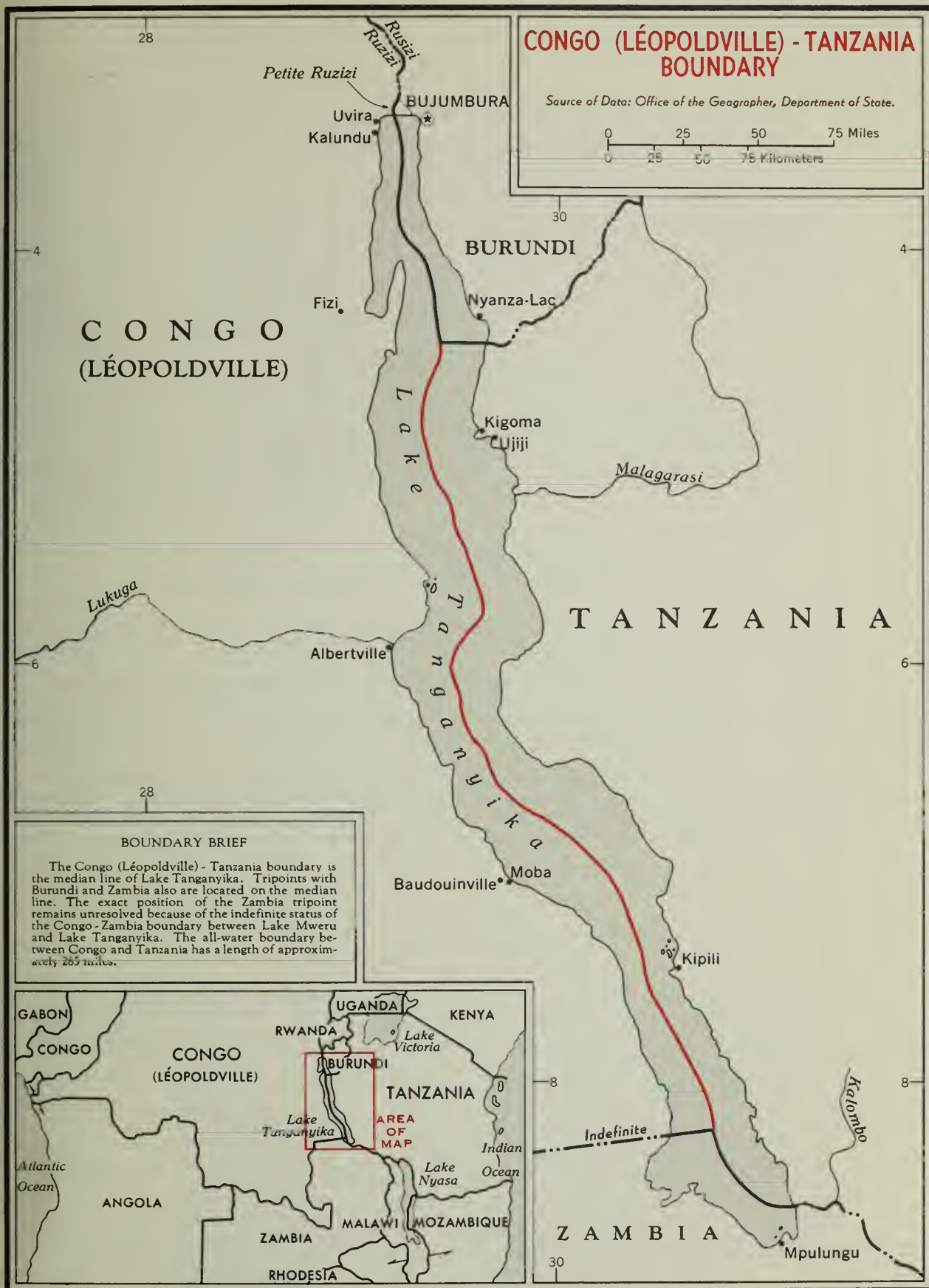
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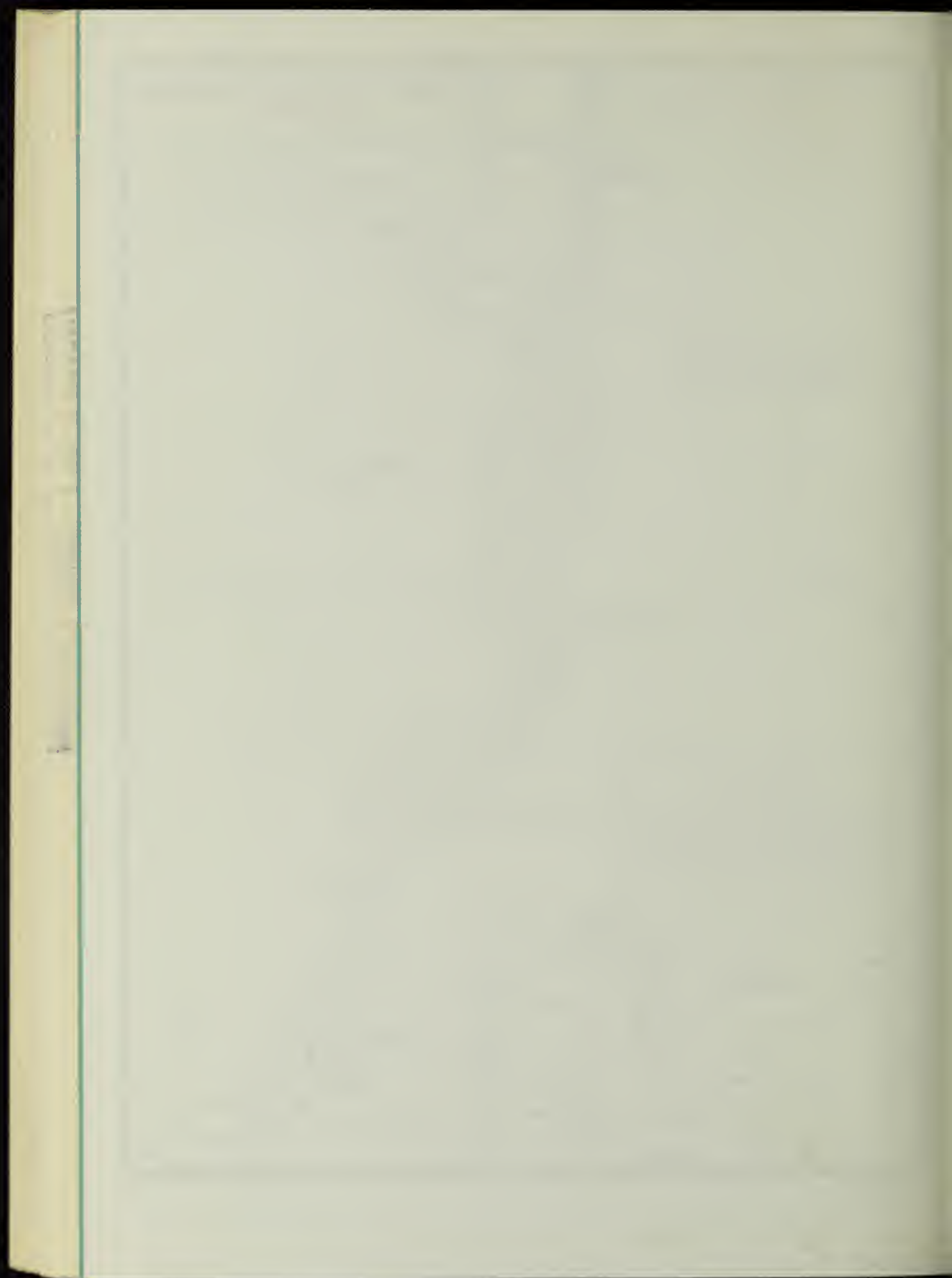
Congo (Léopoldville) - Tanzania Boundary

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CONGO (Léopoldville) - TANZANIA BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Congo (Léopoldville) - Tanzania boundary is the median line of Lake Tanganyika. Tripoints with Burundi and Zambia also are located on the median line. The exact position of the Zambia tripoint remains unresolved because of the indefinite status of the Congo - Zambia boundary between Lake Mweru and Lake Tanganyika. The all-water boundary between the Congo and Tanzania has a length of approximately 285 miles.

II. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Berlin Conference of 1884-85 recognized King Leopold II of Belgium as the sovereign head of state for an International Association of the Congo. On July 1, 1885, the entity was renamed the Congo Free State, and in 1908 the state was accorded colonial status as the Belgian Congo. A declaration by the Administrator-General of the Department of Foreign Affairs of the Congo Free State on August 1, 1885¹ stated that the limits of the entity were determined by:

The median line of Lake Tanganyika;
A straight line drawn from Lake Tanganyika
to Lake Moero [Mweru] by 8° 30' latitude.

The limit of the state in Lake Tanganyika was reiterated as the median line in a declaration of neutrality by the Congo Free State in December 1894.

Between 1885 and World War I, Tanganyika was the major part of German East Africa, the remainder being Ruanda-Urundi and Kionga triangle. On August 11, 1910 a convention was signed by Belgium and Germany fixing the boundary between their respective possessions in central Africa.

Following World War I the Kionga triangle was returned to Portuguese Mozambique and Ruanda-Urundi became first a Belgian mandate and then, after World War II, a Belgian trusteeship. In a similar manner Tanganyika, under British administration, became first a League of Nations mandate and then a United Nations trusteeship.

¹ Prior to the declaration of the boundaries of the Congo Free State in 1885, treaties were signed by the International Association of the Congo with Germany, France, and Belgium. Maps attached to the treaties indicated the limits of the Congo that the three states would accept as reproduced on a map opposite page 604 in the book by Edward Hertslet, The Map of Africa by Treaty, 3 vols., 3rd ed. (London: Harrison and Sons, 1909) Vol. 2. On all three treaty maps the limit of the Congo on Lake Tanganyika was shown as the western shore. Referenced treaties are as follows: 1) Convention between the German Empire and the International Association of the Congo, Berlin, November 8, 1884. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 572-573; 2) Conventions between the Government of the French Republic and the International Association of the Congo, Paris, February 5, 1885. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 564-565; and 3) Declarations exchanged between the Belgian Government and the International Association of the Congo, Berlin, February 23, 1885. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 544-545.

Beginning with the emergence of the Belgian Congo as the Republic of the Congo on June 30, 1960², all states adjacent to Lake Tanganyika now have been granted independence. Tanganyika became independent on December 9, 1961. The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar³ was constituted by a merger on April 27, 1964, and the name of the state was changed to the United Republic of Tanzania on October 29, 1964. Urundi acquired independence on July 1, 1962 as the Kingdom of Burundi⁴, and Northern Rhodesia became independent from the United Kingdom as the Republic of Zambia on October 24, 1964.

III. POLITICO-GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS

Lake Tanganyika, through which the Congo-Tanzania boundary passes, has an area of 12,700 square miles and is about the size of the states of Maryland and Delaware combined. The lake occupies the southern end of the western arm of the Great Rift valley of Africa and has a length of 420 miles and ranges in width between 30 and 45 miles. For most of its length, the land rises steeply from the shores of the lake and some adjacent uplands have elevations in excess of 8,000 feet. The lake surface is considered to be at an elevation of about 2,540 feet, although seasonal and annual changes in water level are common. The deepest part of the lake is 2,172 feet below sea level, which affords a total water depth of 4,712 feet. The only outlet is the Lukuga near Albertville, which is often silted up and raises the level of the lake. Important streams draining into Lake Tanganyika include the Rusizi carrying overflow water from Lake Kivu, the Malagarasi entering 50 miles south of Kigoma, and the Kalambo in the south.

Lake Tanganyika is located in a savanna climatic region. Temperatures are hot in summer and warm throughout the winter. Precipitation ranges between 20 and 40 inches and falls almost entirely during the summer months. Most of the area immediately adjacent to the lake consists of a grassland with scattered areas of forest.

Historically, African peoples have migrated across Lake Tanganyika with the movement being made primarily from west to east. The origins of some of the people living on the eastern shore of the lake at the present time can be traced to areas in the Congo. Recent movements of people and contacts across the lake have been on a limited scale.

Except for higher densities in the north, the population along most of the Congolese side of the lake ranges between 50 and 100 persons per square mile as compared to between five and 50 for the Tanzania side. In addition to fishing, most of the people are engaged in grazing and a shifting or rudimentary sedentary type of agriculture. In a few places, plantation agriculture is the dominant activity.

Lake Tanganyika is an important link in the transportation system of Africa. Although recent political events in the area undoubtedly have affected lake transportation, previously steamers served a number of ports

² The name of the Republic of the Congo was officially changed to the Democratic Republic of the Congo on August 1, 1964.

³ Prior to the merger, Zanzibar had gained its independence on December 10, 1963.

⁴ Rwanda also was granted independence on July 1, 1962 as the Republic of Rwanda.

including Mupulungu in Zambia; Bujumbura in Burundi; Kalundu (port of Uvira), Albertville, and Moba (near Baudouinvillie) in the Congo; and Kigomo in Tanzania. Of particular importance to east-west communications is the steamer connection between Kigomo, the terminus of the railway line from Dar es Salaam, and Albertville, which is the terminus of a railway line from the Lualaba river.

IV. BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

Because of the indefinite status of the Congo - Zambia boundary between Lake Mweru and Lake Tanganyika, the exact location of the Zambia tripoint is unresolved. An agreement in May, 1894 between the United Kingdom and King Leopold II, terminated the boundary about 15 minutes northward of the point on the west shore of Lake Tanganyika indicated in the declaration of the limits of the Congo Free State in 1885. The agreement stated the following:

The frontier between the Independent Congo Free State and the British sphere to the north of the Zambezi shall follow a line running direct from the extremity of Cape Akalunga on Lake Tanganyika, situated at the northernmost point of Cameron Bay at about 8° 15' south latitude, to the right [east] bank of the River Luapula [Luvua], where this river issues from Lake Moero.

For purposes of delimiting the boundary, the exact location of Cape Akalunga has remained unresolved. A relatively recent map of the Congo prepared by a Belgian-sponsored Special Committee of the Katanga indicated the Congo - Zambia boundary reached the shore of Lake Tanganyika at Cape Kipimbi (Chipimbi), which places the tripoint at about 8° 17' S. latitude. Recent maps published both by the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia indicated the boundary reached the shore on the northern point of Cape Pungu, which places the tripoint at about 8° 12' S. The extension of a line drawn northeastward from the right bank of the Luvua on Lake Mweru, through 8° 15' S. on the shore of Lake Tanganyika, and thence to the median line of Lake Tanganyika, would place the Zambia tripoint at about 8° 13' S., which is the recommended location of the tripoint for cartographic representation.

The Convention signed by Belgium and Germany on August 11, 1910 gives the Congo - Tanzania boundary as follows:

The boundary, leaving the median line of Lake Tanganyika, curves in order to follow the thalweg of the main western branch of the Russisi [Rusizi] delta as far as the northern tip of the delta.

Although the 1910 convention between Belgium and Germany gave the median line of Lake Tanganyika the status of an international boundary, no known attempt has been made to determine an exact median line. Maps of Lake Tanganyika have shown the boundary with a considerable amount of cartographic license.

The Burundi tripoint is located on the median line of Lake Tanganyika at about 4° 27' S. Following the establishment of a mandate of Ruanda-Urundi, an Anglo-Belgian commission demarcated the boundary with Tanganyika between 1922 and 1924. A protocol dated August 5, 1924 approved the work of the commission and indicated in Paragraph 51 that the international

boundary in Lake Tanganyika had been decided upon as follows:⁵

By common agreement it is suggested that our respective Governments consider the boundary in the waters of Lake Tanganyika to be the parallel due west from Boundary Pillar No. 1 to the point of intersection with the north and south median line of the lake.

V. PRESENT SITUATION

Although the position of the median line and the Zambia tripoint have not been determined precisely, probably future problems will stem primarily from the fact that the boundary is located strategically astride of Lake Tanganyika and is associated with one of the most important water bodies in central Africa. Four states adjoin Lake Tanganyika and areas of activity on which cooperation is needed along them include: transportation facilities, movement of people and goods, fishing, and water supply.

⁵ The Burundi - Tanzania boundary on the shore of Lake Tanganyika is described in Paragraph 1 of the Anglo-Belgian protocol of 1924 as follows: "1. B.P. No. I, situated on the Eastern shore of Lake Tanganyika, at about 13 feet (four metres) from the water's edge and at the outlet of the Ndyakalika Ravine; thence up the thalweg of this ravine to B.P. No. II situated at its head.

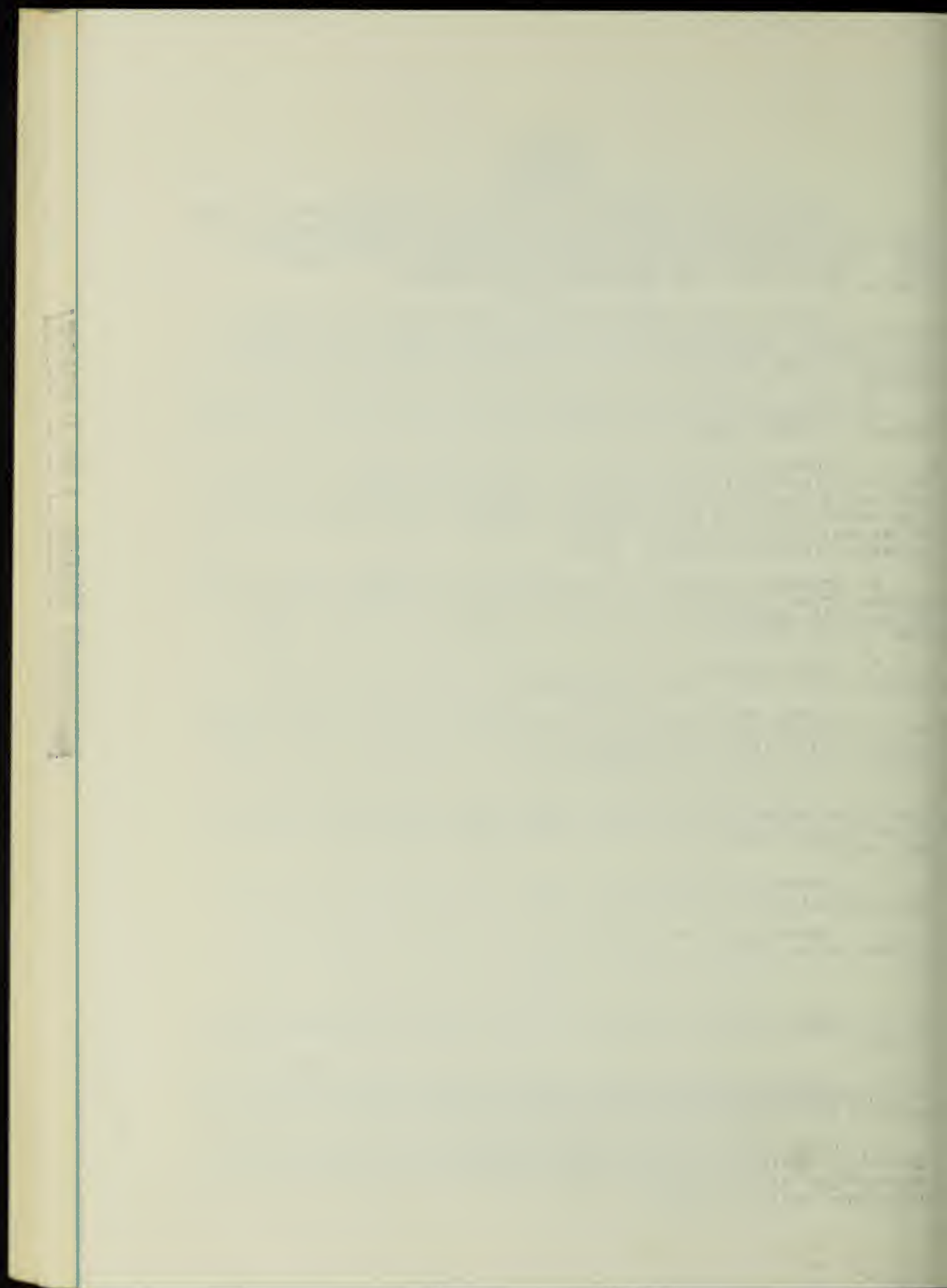
APPENDIX

DOCUMENTS

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2. Agreement between Great Britain and His majesty King Leopold II, Sovereign of the Independent State of the Congo, relating to the Spheres of Influence of Great Britain and the Independent State of the Congo in East and Central Africa. Brussels, May 12, 1894. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 578-580.
3. Declaration of the Neutrality of the Congo Free State. Brussels, December 28, 1894. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 557-561.
4. Convention en vue d'approuver l'arrangement signé à Bruxelles, le 14 mai 1910, fixant la frontière entre le Protectorat allemand de l'Afrique Orientale et la Colonie du Congo belge; signée à Bruxelles, le 11 août 1910 (Les ratifications ont été échangées à Bruxelles, le 27 juillet 1911). De Martens, G. Fr., Recueil De Traités, Troisième Série, Tome VII (Leipzig: Librairie Dieterich, 1913) pp. 366-372.
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6. British Mandates for the Cameroons, Togoland and East Africa, January, 1923, United Kingdom Command 1794 (boundary map included).
7. Correspondence regarding the modification of the Boundary between British Mandated Territory and Belgian Mandated Territory in East Africa, October 1923, United Kingdom Command 1974 (In continuation of Cmd. 1794). A map of the boundary is included.
8. Protocol respecting the Boundary between Tanganyika Territory and the Belgian Mandated Territory of Ruanda-Urundi, May 27, 1926, United Kingdom Treaty Series No. 6 (1927), Command 2812 (includes three boundary map sheets).
9. Jentgen, P., "Notice de la Carte des Frontières du Congo Belge." Atlas Général du Congo (Bruxelles, 1953).
10. Jentgen, P., "Les Frontières du Congo Belge," Institut Royal Colonial Belge, Mémoires, Tome XXV, 1952.

MAPS

1. World (Africa): Series 1301, scale 1:1,000,000; published 1962 by United States Army Map Service; sheets SA 35, SB 35, and SB 36 and part of SB 35.
2. Northern Rhodesia: Scale 1:250,000; Federal Department of Trigonometrical and Topographical Surveys; published 1960 by Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland; map sheet Abercorn (SC 36-1).
3. Congo Belge (Katanga): Scale 1:250,000; Service Géographique et Géologique Comité Spécial du Katanga; published 1959 by Institut Géographique Militaire, Belgium; reprinted by United States Army Map Service 1960; sheet Moliro (SC 36-a).



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International Boundary Study

NO. 52 - JUNE 15, 1965

CONGO (Léopoldville) – RWANDA BOUNDARY



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

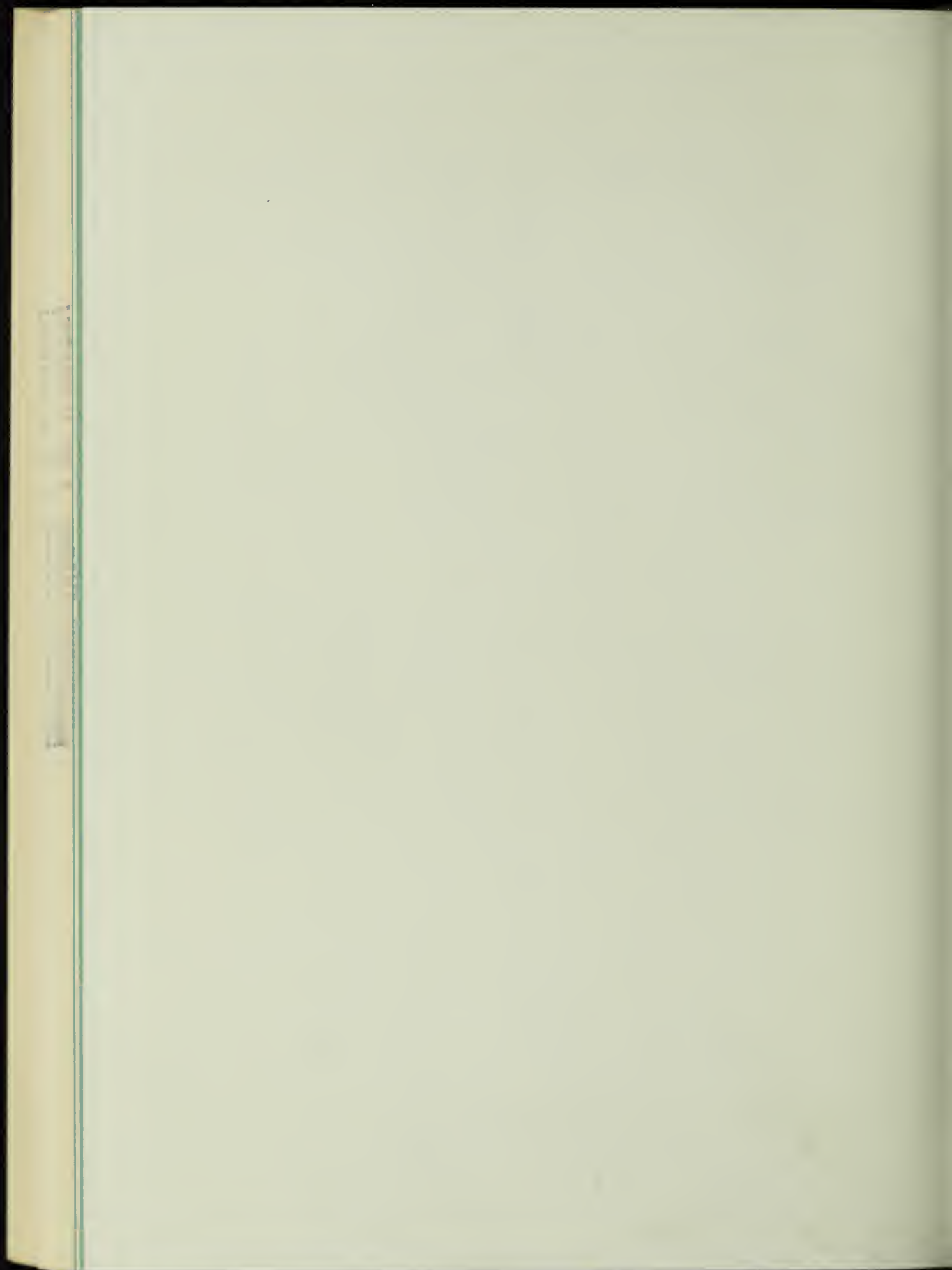
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Congo (Léopoldville) - Rwanda Boundary

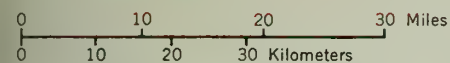
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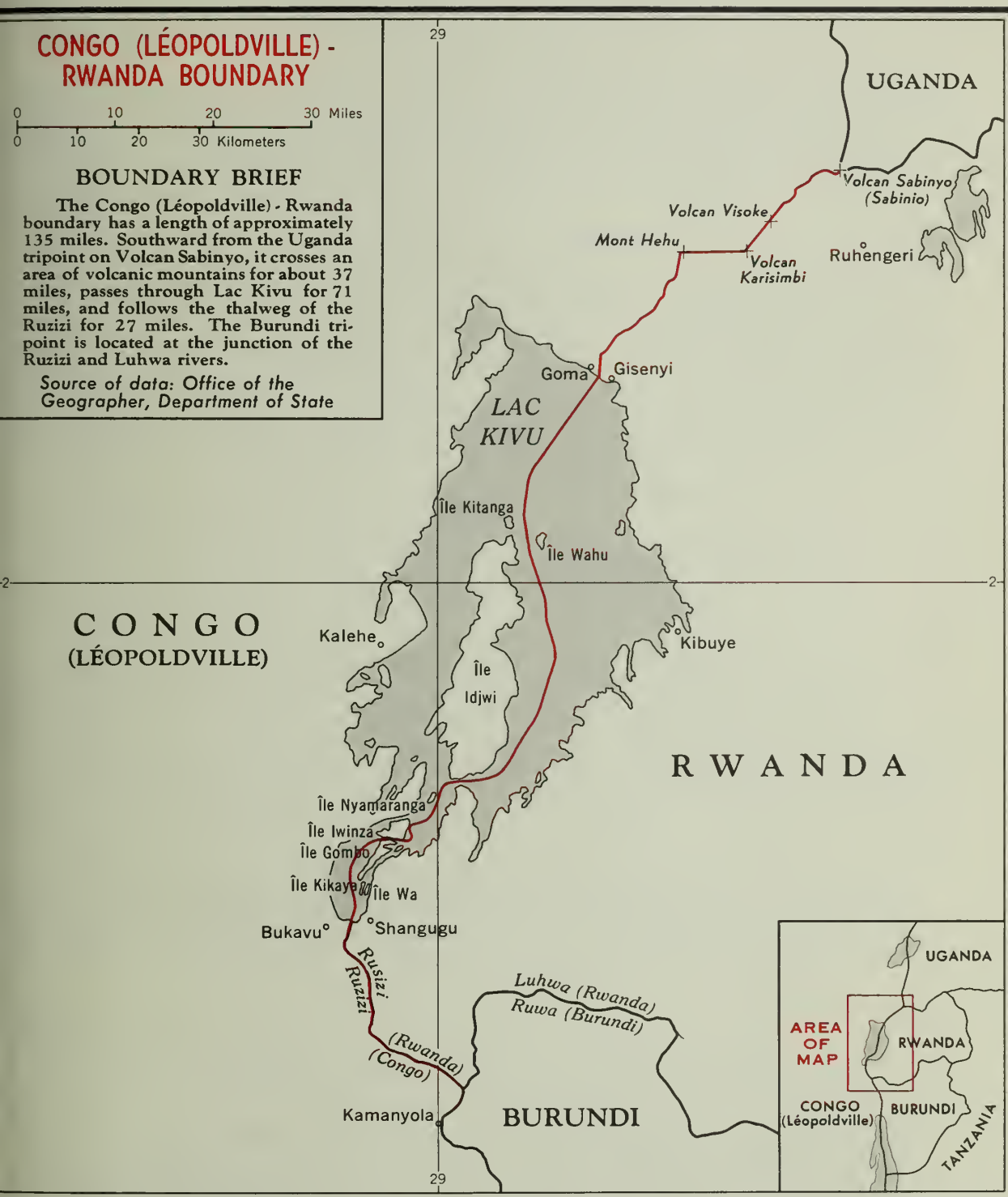
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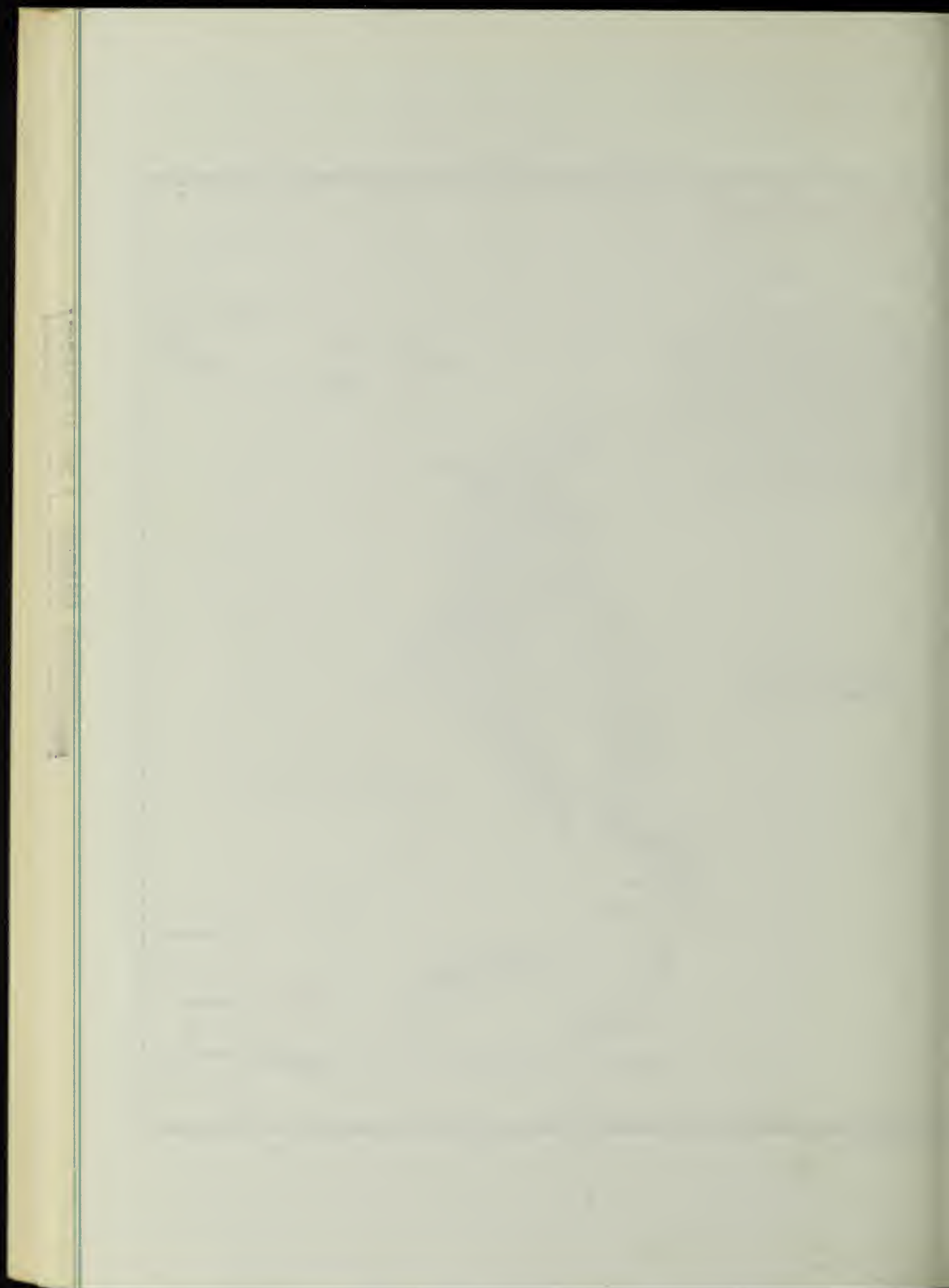


BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Congo (Léopoldville) - Rwanda boundary has a length of approximately 135 miles. Southward from the Uganda tripoint on Volcan Sabinyo, it crosses an area of volcanic mountains for about 37 miles, passes through Lac Kivu for 71 miles, and follows the thalweg of the Ruzizi for 27 miles. The Burundi tripoint is located at the junction of the Ruzizi and Luhwa rivers.

Source of data: Office of the
Geographer, Department of State





CONGO (Léopoldville) - RWANDA BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Congo (Léopoldville) - Rwanda boundary has a length of approximately 135 miles. Southward from the Uganda tripoint on Volcan Sabinyo (Sabinio), it crosses an area of volcanic mountains for about 37 miles, passes through Lac Kivu for 71 miles, and follows the thalweg of the Ruzizi (Rusizi) for 27 miles. The Burundi tripoint is located at the junction of the Ruzizi and Luhwa (Ruwa) rivers.

II. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Berlin Conference of 1884-85 recognized King Leopold II of Belgium as the sovereign head of state for an International Association of the Congo. On July 1, 1885, the entity was renamed the Congo Free State, and in 1908 the state was accorded colonial status as the Belgian Congo. A declaration by the Administrator-General of the Department of Foreign Affairs of the Congo Free State stated on August 1, 1885 that the eastern limits of the entity, which included the sector adjacent to Rwanda (then known as Ruanda), were determined southward from the intersection of the 4th parallel of north latitude with the 30th meridian of east longitude as follows:

The 30th degree of longitude east of Greenwich
up to 1° 20' of south latitude;

A straight line drawn from the intersection of the
30th degree of longitude by the parallel of 1° 20' of
south latitude as far as the northern extremity of
Lake Tanganyika, ...¹

A tripoint with Uganda was established initially in 1890² following a compromise agreement between the United Kingdom and Germany relative to their respective spheres of influence west of Lake Victoria. Article I, Paragraph 1 of the agreement provided that the boundary between British and German territories should follow the parallel of one degree south latitude across Lake Victoria and thence should continue westward, deflected only to include Mount Mufumbiro³ in the British sphere, to its intersection with the 30th meridian of longitude east of Greenwich. At this point the 30th meridian was the self-defined limit of the Congo Free State.

Prior to 1910 boundaries established between Lac Kivu and Lake Albert were based on limited landform information. Data were sparse particularly in the mountainous areas such as the Mufumbiro and Ruwenzori and initial boundaries were drawn without adequate knowledge of the actual surface conditions. In 1910 an Anglo-German-Belgian conference was held in

¹ The limit of the state adjacent to Rwanda was phrased similarly in a declaration of neutrality by the Congo Free State in December, 1894.

² Agreement between the British and German Governments, respecting Africa and Heligoland, Berlin, July 1, 1890. Edward Hertslet, The Map of Africa by Treaty, 3 vols., 3rd. ed. (London: Harrison and Sons, 1909) Vol. 3, pp. 899-906.

³ Mount Mufumbiro later was found to be a region of volcanoes lying both south of 1° south latitude and west of the 30th meridian.

Brussels,⁴ which resulted in agreement on Volcan Sabinyo as the tripoint of the territories of the three states, delimited the present Congo - Rwanda and Burundi - Congo boundaries, and delimited the parts of the Congo - Uganda and Tanzania - Uganda boundaries adjoining the tripoint.

Between 1885 and World War I, Rwanda was administered (along with Urundi and Tanganyika) as part of German East Africa. On August 11, 1910, the convention signed by Belgium and Germany at Brussels modified the limits formerly claimed by the Congo Free State and established the present boundary between Rwanda and the Congo. Following World War I, a Belgian mandate was proclaimed for Ruanda-Urundi, and after World War II, Belgian administration of the entity continued as a trusteeship.

States adjoining the Congo - Rwanda boundary recently have become independent beginning with the Congo on June 30, 1960. Both Ruanda and Urundi became independent on July 1, 1962 as the Republic of Rwanda and the Kingdom of Burundi, respectively. Uganda was granted independence on October 9, 1962 having been a United Kingdom protectorate between 1894 and 1962.

⁴ The following treaties, printed in the British and Foreign State Papers, were promulgated as a result of the conference.

Belgium - United Kingdom:

(1) Agreement between Great Britain and Belgium Settling the Boundary between Uganda and the Congo. Signed at Brussels, May 14, 1910, Vol. 107, Part I, 1914, pp. 348-349.

(2) Protocol between Great Britain and Belgium describing the Frontier between the Uganda Protectorate and the Belgian Colony of the Congo. Signed at Busenda, May 4, 1911, Vol. 107, Part I, pp. 349-351.

(3) Agreement between Great Britain and Belgium respecting the boundary between the British and Belgian Territories in East Africa, from Mount Sabinyo to the Congo - Nile Watershed. Signed at London, February 3, 1915 [Ratifications exchanged at London, October 20, 1919]. Vol. 110, 1916, pp. 487-490.

Belgium - Germany:

Convention between Belgium and Germany confirming the Agreement signed at Brussels, May 14, 1910, Settling the Boundary between German East Africa and the Belgian Colony of the Congo. Signed at Brussels, August 11, 1910, Annexe-Arrangement signé à Bruxelles, le 14 mai, 1910. Vol. 103, 1909-10, pp. 372-375.

Germany - United Kingdom:

(1) Agreement between Great Britain and Germany Settling the Boundary between Uganda and German East Africa. Signed at Brussels, May 14, 1910. Vol. 107, Part I, 1914, pp. 394-397.

(2) Protocol between Great Britain and Germany Describing the Frontier between the Uganda Protectorate and German East Africa. Signed at Kamwezi, October 30, 1911. Memorandum attached to the Protocol List of Boundary Pillars on the Anglo-German Boundary, Sabinyo to River Chizingo, with approximate Co-ordinates. Vol. 107, Part I, 1914, pp. 397-402.

III. POLITICO-GEOGRAPHIC SETTING

The Congo - Rwanda boundary between the Burundi tripoint and about 17 miles northward of Lac Kivu is located in the western branch of the Great Rift valley, and the remainder of the boundary extends across an upland surface between high peaks. Peaks eastward and northeastward from the Great Rift valley include Mont Hehu, Volcan Karisimbi, Volcan Visoke, and Volcan Sabinyo. The Ruzizi between the Burundi tripoint and Lac Kivu is characterized by numerous meanders.

With an area of approximately 1,100 square miles, Lac Kivu drains southward through the Ruzizi into Lake Tanganyika. Lac Kivu has a surface elevation of about 4,788 feet and water depths of approximately 1,600 feet. There are a number of islands, of which Île Idjivi is the largest. An important waterway, the lake is served by the ports of Bukavu and Goma in the Congo and Gisenyi in Rwanda. Although few roads cross the boundary, a road connects Bukavu and Shangugu south of Lac Kivu and another road extends between Goma and Gisenyi north of Lac Kivu.

Located only a short distance south of the equator, the boundary area has two wet and two dry seasons. Steppe conditions prevail in much of the Great Rift valley, but adjacent uplands receive between 40 and 55 inches of precipitation. Temperatures are moderated by elevation and a wide range of climate conditions exists in the tropical highlands.

Population densities range between 100 and 250 persons per square mile along most of the boundary. Coffee, tea, and cotton are the major cash crops, and rice, cassava, vegetables, and peanuts are important crops grown for local consumption. The most numerous people of Rwanda, the Bahutu, apparently migrated eastward from the Congo centuries ago to their present location. A number of Batutsi, the second most numerous group of people, have recently crossed the boundary into the Congo as political refugees.

IV. BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The Burundi tripoint is located at the junction of the Ruzizi and Luhwa rivers between Lake Tanganyika and Lac Kivu. There are no known treaties establishing the tripoint and the Burundi - Rwanda boundary appears to be a traditional line between the two states.

The convention signed by Belgium and Germany on August 11, 1910 gives the alignment of the Congo - Rwanda boundary as follows:⁵

It then takes the thalweg of that river [Ruzizi] to the point where it flows out of Lac Kivu.

At those points where the river divides into several branches, the local authorities shall determine, as soon as possible, the principal branch whose thalweg will form the boundary.

⁵ The convention also included the alignment of the present Burundi - Congo boundary.

Across Lac Kivu:

The boundary follows the line indicated on Map I, attached. That line, starting at the Russisi [Ruzizi], terminates on the north at a point on the shore equidistant from Goma (post) and Kissegnies [Gisenyi] (boma) [compound].

It leaves to the west, in particular, the islands of Iwinza, Nyamaronga [Nyamaranga], Kwidjwi [Ile Idjwi], and Kitanga, which shall belong to Belgium, and to the east, the islands of Kikaya, Gombo, Kumenie, and Wau (Wahu), which shall belong to Germany.

North of Lac Kivu:

First -- taking a northerly direction in so far as possible -- the boundary follows the meridian of the point halfway between the Belgian station of Goma and the German compound of Kissegnies up to a distance of 500 meters south of the highway marked in red on Map II, attached, extending from Goma, through Bussaro, Iwuwiro, Niakawanda, and Buhamba, to the pass between Rukeri and Henhu. In tracing this meridian, account should be taken of the native settlements that this line would cross, so that, in so far as possible, they remain in German territory.

From this point, the boundary bends in a northeasterly direction and runs at a distance of 500 meters east of the above-mentioned road up to the Niakawanda parallel marked in black on Map II.

Wherever the terrain permits the use of natural markers for the boundary, it may depart from the above-mentioned section of road as much as 1,000 meters eastward.

It is only when a departure would mean the separation of the native settlements from German territory that a departure of 500 meters from the said road may not, in principle, be exceeded.

North of Niakawanda, the road is indicated only roughly on the attached Map II.

It shall be understood that if the road departs eastward more than is shown on the map, the boundary may not run east of the lowest depression between the slopes of the Niragongo and the Karissimbi, roughly indicated by a green line on Map II, attached.

North of the parallel of the Bihira hill, the boundary must be traced in such a way that, curving eastward and, in so far as possible, using the unevenness of the terrain; and passing about halfway between Bihara and Buhama (see Map II, attached), it reaches the northern summit of Hehu.

The section of the boundary described herein, commencing at the northern bank of the Kivu and running to the parallel passing by the northern summit of Hehu, shall be fixed and delimited in the field by a mixed commission according to the principles established above.⁶

Beginning at the northern summit of Hehu, the boundary runs in a straight line toward the Karissimbi peak [Volcan Karisimbi] (Barthelemy Spitze). From the Karissimbi peak, the boundary runs in a straight line toward the Vissoké [Volcan Visoke] (Kishasha) summit. From there it reaches the principal summit of Sabinio, following the crest of the chain of small craters that extends between these two volcanoes.

The summit of Sabinio marks the point where the German, Belgian, and British territories join. East of that point, the British-German boundary begins, and north of it, the British-Belgian boundary begins.

V. PRESENT SITUATION

There are no known boundary areas disputed officially by the Congo and Rwanda. Recently unofficial Congolese claims were made to the small islands of île Gombo, île Wa, and île Kihaya in Lac Kivu.

⁶ The boundary is known to be demarcated by pillars numbered I through XXII northward from Lac Kivu to Mont Hehu.

APPENDIX

DOCUMENTS

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2. Declaration of the Neutrality of the Congo Free State. Brussels, December 28, 1894. Ibid., Vol. 2, pp. 557-561.
3. Convention en vue d'approuver l'arrangement signé à Bruxelles, le 14 mai 1910, fixant la frontière entre le Protectorat allemand de l'Afrique Orientale et la Colonie du Congo belge; signée à Bruxelles, le 11 août 1910 (Les ratifications ont été échangées à Bruxelles, le 27 juillet 1911). De Martens, G. Fr., Recueil De Traités, Troisième Série, Tome VII, pp. 372-375.
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5. Jentgen, P., "Notice de la Carte des Frontières du Congo Belge." Atlas Général du Congo (Bruxelles, 1953).
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7. Atlas of Uganda, Department of Lands and Surveys, Uganda, First Edition, 1962.

MAPS

1. Ruanda-Urundi: scale 1:200,000; Service Cartographique, Ministère des Colonies; published 1937 by Institut Cartographique Militaire, Bruxelles, Belgium; sheets 4 and 6.
2. Ruanda-Urundi: scale 1:100,000; Service Cartographique, Ministère des Colonies; published 1936 by Institut Cartographique Militaire, Bruxelles, Belgium, sheets 15, 10, 9, 11, 5, 1, and 2.
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Map 200

International Boundary Study

NO. 53 - JUNE 30, 1965

BULGARIA - RUMANIA BOUNDARY



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

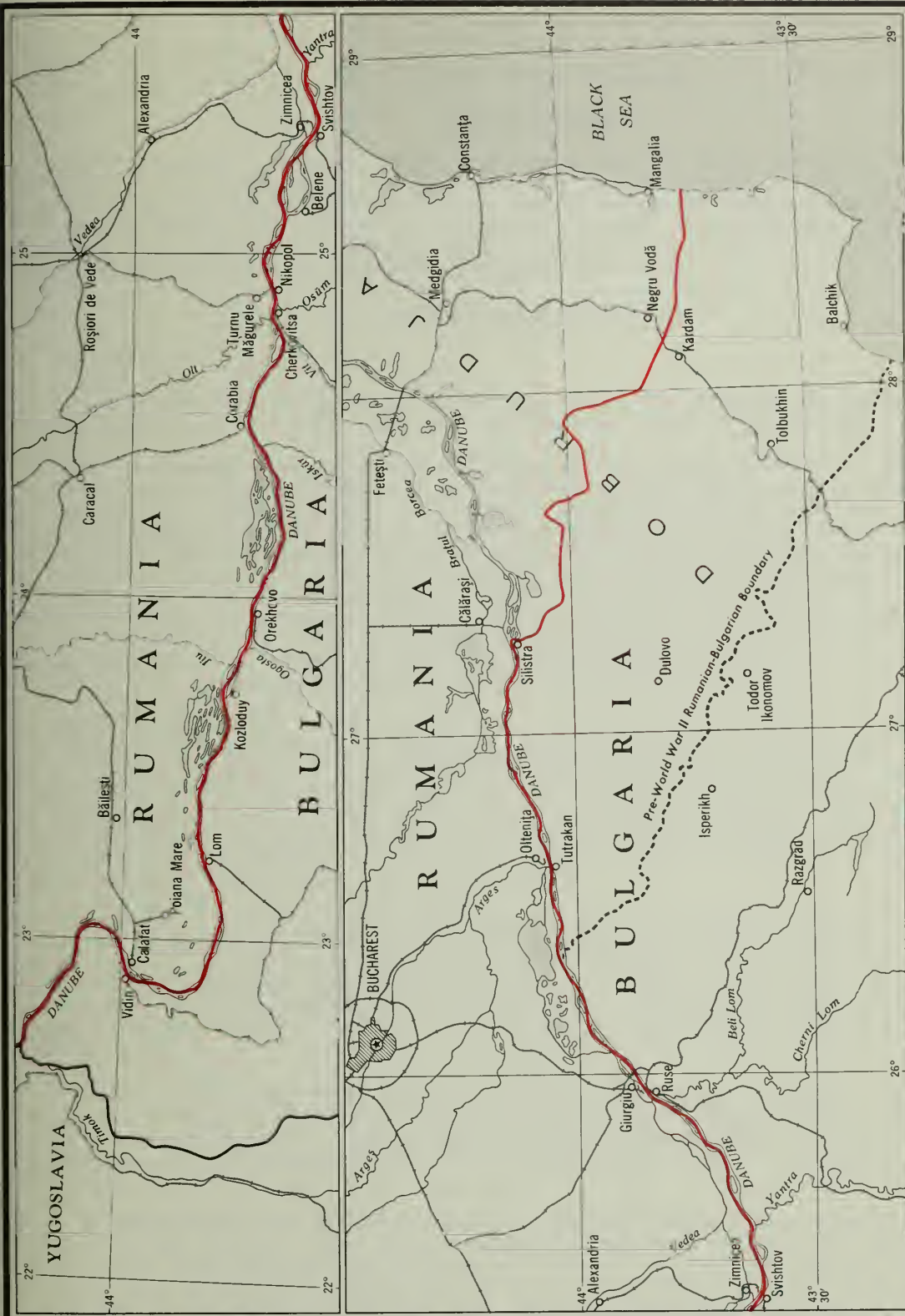
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Bulgaria-Rumania Boundary

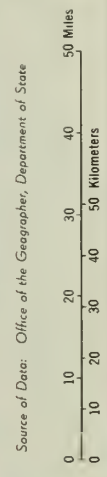
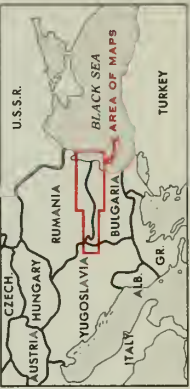
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The Geographer
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BULGARIA - RUMANIA BOUNDARY



Source of Data: Office of the Geographer, Department of State

BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Bulgaria-Rumania boundary extends for 378 miles from the Yugoslav tripoint in the west to the Black Sea in the east. For 294 miles, the boundary follows a set course in the Danube River while the remaining demarcated sector of 84 miles divides Dobruja into northern (Rumanian) and southern (Bulgarian) sectors. No active disputes over the precise alignment are known.



BULGARIA - RUMANIA BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Bulgaria - Rumania boundary extends for 378 miles from the Yugoslav tripoint at the confluence of the Timok and Danube Rivers in the west to the Black Sea in the east. For 294 miles, the boundary follows a set course in the Danube River. The remaining demarcated sector of 84 miles divides Dobrudja into northern (Rumanian) and southern (Bulgarian) sectors. No active disputes over the precise alignment are known.

II. GEOGRAPHICAL BACKGROUND

A. Physical

The international boundary between Bulgaria and Rumania traverses the lower Danube plains in the west and the plateau of Dobrudja in the east.

The lower Danube plains, often referred to as the Balkan Foreland in Bulgaria, are formed essentially by horizontal sedimentary strata overlaying a limestone base. In general, elevations decrease from west to east although marked variations in heights exist locally owing to active stream erosion. The surface cover comprises alluvial deposits interspersed with large areas of loess, a fine, wind-blown soil usually of considerably fertility. The Danube River, however, dominates the frontier area. In the 294 mile sector where it forms the boundary, the river varies in width from about 500 yards to about 3,000 yards. The minimum width is situated in the west while the maximum width is attained in several places along the middle and lower course of the river. Islands are found throughout the entire length.

The Rumanian bank of the Danube is generally low and is marked by a continuous series of shallow lagoons, aligned parallel to the river. They vary from a few miles to over nine miles in length. From the lagoons the banks slope gently upward to elevations of several hundred feet at distances of 10 to 20 miles from the Danube. In contrast, the Bulgarian bank possesses few lagoons and the greatest measures only 4.5 miles in length. Furthermore, the right bank is formed, for the most part, by sheer loess cliffs rising about 500 feet above the normal river level.

Seasonal fluctuations in the level of the river measure approximately 25 feet. The highest level ordinarily is attained in June and during this month most of the Danube's approximately 90 islands are flooded. The river, in addition, normally expands to include the lagoons. The seasonal low water level normally occurs in the early fall. The main navigational channel, however, remains closer to the Rumanian than to the Bulgarian shore during both periods.

The Dobrudja, situated between the lower Danube and the Black Sea, is a low, limestone plateau with elevations of more than 600 feet. The surface is very dry and covered with a shallow accumulation of loess. As a consequence, the steppe-like natural vegetation reflects the aridity of the soil.

Climatically, the frontier region resembles the interior plains region of the United States. Mean annual temperatures range between 50° and 53° F. Winter mean temperatures are between 25° and 30° F. and the Danube normally freezes over about three years out of every four with a considerable variation in the duration of the ice. Summer means range between 68° and 72° F. Average annual precipitation ranges between 20 and 30 inches with

the maximum falling in the west and the minimum in the vicinity of the Black Sea. The annual rainfall is relatively well distributed with the normal maxima occurring in early summer (May - July) and minima in the winter (January - February). No month is without precipitation.

B. Historical

In the 4th century B.C., Alexander extended his domain to the Danube while subjugating the Thracian tribes of the upper Balkans. Although the possession of this territory was short-lived, the Danube, in a modern sense, became an "international boundary" for the first time. The Romans, in the 1st century B.C., conquered Moesia (Bulgaria north of the Balkan Mountains) and incorporated it into the empire and, for two centuries, the Danube again served as an important boundary. In 107 A.D. Trajan advanced across the river and conquered Dacia, laying the foundations for modern Rumania.

With the division of the Roman Empire into western and eastern sectors in 395, the Balkans became the frontier of the Eastern Empire with the Danube again, as a result of the loss of Dacia, the international boundary. Great forces were exerted on this frontier. Goths, Huns, and Avars, abandoning their traditional territory on the Asiatic steppes, migrated to the Balkans. These tribes raided and plundered the frontiers, often in alliance with Constantinople, more often in opposition. Furthermore, about 500 A.D., the Slavs, who inhabited the plains between the Oder and the Volga Rivers, also moved southwards to the Danube. Disease and the "barbarian" raids had depopulated great areas of Dacia and Moesia by the end of the 6th century. At first, most of the barbarians lived north of the Danubian boundary although isolated tribes began to settle in the vacated and devastated lands. Within a century they effectively occupied the region of Moesia.

In the 7th century, Asiatic Bulgars, closely related to the Huns and Avars, abandoned their lands in the lower Volga to move westward. They crossed the Danube in 660 A.D. and conquered the unorganized Slavs. In the following years of alternating peace and plunder, the Bulgars had become absorbed and thoroughly Slavicized. Converted to Orthodox Christianity, the Bulgarians established several extensive, prosperous, but short-lived, kingdoms. They, in turn, were attacked by the Magyars who were allied temporarily with the eastern empire. By 1016, Bulgaria had been reconquered by Constantinople and the Magyars had settled in the Pannonian basin to the northwest.

In the 12th century, the Rumanian peoples began to appear as a force north of the Danube. They constitute a unique group in the ethnographic mosaic of the Balkans. Formed originally by an amalgamation of peoples Roman colonists and local Dacians - they have been able to perpetuate their Latin language and heritage in spite of the flood of invaders after the collapse of Roman authority. The Rumanians had withdrawn into the protecting fastness of the Carpathians to re-emerge, relatively intact, after the pressures ebbed.

After several centuries of turmoil and changing fortunes, the Balkans fell to the Turkish sultanate in 1460. The Rumanian principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia became Turkish suzerainties while Bulgaria was administered directly as part of the empire. Local social, political and economic institutions were abolished and Bulgarian civilization was virtually eradicated.

A slow decline in the power of the Ottoman empire followed, coupled with a rise in the fortunes of Austria and Russia. A series of wars were fought and the "Eastern Question" of the Balkans threatened European

stability. The Question occupied a considerable amount of energy and time of the great powers as each attempted to exert or expand its influence in the region. During the 18th and 19th centuries, the Balkans were the focus of European rivalries and power politics. The term "Balkanization" became synonymous with fractionalization into small political entities often, by connotation, as a consequence of foreign interference.

In 1859, the Rumanian principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia elected a common prince and two years later, they coalesced as a single state. Rumanian independence of Turkey was recognized in 1878 by the Congress of Berlin. This same Congress created the Principality of Bulgaria under Turkish suzerainty. The final agreement also transferred northern Dobrudja to Rumania in exchange for the cession of Bessarabia to Russia. The Dobrudjan boundary created by the powers is essentially the boundary of today.

The Congress of Berlin, however, left many questions unanswered. Bulgarian nationalism has been awakened with the earlier creation of Greater Bulgaria by the Treaty of San Stefano. The actions of Berlin in paring down Bulgaria's size produced in the country a feeling of frustration. Since the major territorial losses were in the south and west, nationalistic ambitions were directed in that direction, towards eastern Rumelia, Macedonia, and Thrace. Thus in spite of the wars and political activity of the next 35 years, the Bulgaria - Rumania boundary remained unaffected. Bulgaria annexed Eastern Rumelia in 1885 and became independent in 1908. The First Balkan War ended in the total defeat of Turkey but the victors failed to agree on the partition of the spoils. Bulgaria, desiring a greater portion of Macedonia, attacked her former allies beginning the Second Balkan War. However, Turkey and Rumania joined in defeating an aggressive Bulgaria. In the treaty which followed, Bulgaria ceded southern Dobrudja to Rumania.

In World War I, Bulgaria sided with the Central Powers and Rumania with the Allied Powers. The ultimate collapse of the Central Powers, however, did not affect the boundary which was defined by the Treaty of Neuilly as the land "frontier existing on August 1, 1914" to the Danube and then the principal channel of navigation westward to the Timok. (However, for a brief period between the defeat of Allied Rumania and the ultimate defeat of the Central Powers a few months later, Bulgaria briefly regained parts of her lost Dobrudjan territory.) Between the wars, the Dobrudja boundary served as a source of considerable conflict between the two states. In an effort to strengthen its claims, Rumania attempted to colonize southern Dobrudja with Rumanian settlers. Also in the 1930s, more than 45,000 Turks living in Rumania--chiefly from southern Dobrudja--were returned to Turkey. The dream of colonization ended in 1940 with the Treaty of Craiova, a result of Axis mediation and pressure, as southern Dobrudja was restored to Bulgaria. A program of repatriation followed involving a wholesale exchange of Bulgarian and Rumanian settlers between the northern and southern sectors of Dobrudja. At the same time, the small ethnic German population was evacuated from both sectors. The net result of the movement of population has been to reduce the ethnic diversity of the area as well as to produce a much more sharply defined ethnic boundary between the Rumanian and Bulgarian populations.

The present boundary, partly because it is a more precise ethnic divide, no longer appears to be a major source of potential disagreement.

C. Communications

The Danube serves as an effective barrier for communications between the two states. At Giurgiu - Ruse, a double-deck bridge spans the river for both road and rail traffic. A few ferries provide weak links elsewhere along the

river. However, in Dobrudja, three major routes cross the frontier: a) Silistra-Ostrov, b) Negru-Voda - Kardam, and c) Mangalia - Shabla, paralleling the coast. The first and third involve all-weather roads only while the second route includes road and rail lines.

III. ANALYSIS OF BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

For the 294 miles which the boundary follows the Danube, the thalweg, or the principal channel of navigation, serves as the line of demarcation. This channel, for the most part, tends to be closer to the Rumania than to the Bulgarian shore. The results of recent hydrographic surveys of the river are not available and hence the position of the thalweg cannot be described with certainty; however, no evidence has been presented for a significant change in position.

At Silistra, the boundary departs from the Danube and it "makes a slight inflected curve, and goes toward the south as far as half-way down the slope of the second spur of the height of Arab-Tabiassi (Arab Tabia), thence it goes down that slope at a right angle, crosses the ravine to ascend directly the summit-line of the first spur of the said height, leaving Arab-Tabiassi to Roumania. It continues in the same direction as near as possible from north to south, until it meets the Karaorman road, at a place where the path leading to the village of Almaly (Almalau) turns off. From that place as far as landmark No. 5 ... the frontier is formed by the eastern side of the Karaorman road, which will thus belong in its integrity to Bulgaria."¹ From this point, the boundary extends generally east-southeastward in a series of straight lines to a point on the Black Sea coast approximately 8 kilometers south of the center of Mangalia.

IV. TREATIES AND OTHER ACTS

- A. Treaty to modify the Treaty of San Stefano signed in Berlin on July 13, 1878 (by Austria-Hungary, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Russia, and Turkey) with ratifications exchanged on August 3, 1878. (British and Foreign State Papers, 69:749)

The so-called Congress of Berlin modified the San Stefano treaty which ended the Russo-Turkish War. It granted independence to Rumania and nominal independence to the Principality of Bulgaria. According to Article XLVI, the boundary in Dobrudja was defined as "a line starting from the east of Silistria and terminating on the Black Sea, south of Mangalia." It also stated "The frontier line shall be determined on the spot by the European Commission appointed for the delimitation of Bulgaria."

- B. Act of the European Commission ... defining the Boundary between Roumania and Bulgaria ... signed at Constantinople, December 17, 1878. (Hertslet, Map of Europe by Treaty, Vol. IV., p. 2825)

The precise trace of the boundary was delimited by text, survey tables, and a large-scale, 1:30,000 map. In section 5, the text states "between the two connecting points defined in the previous articles, the demarcation of

¹ Modification made in the 6th and 7th Articles of the Act of December 17, 1878 defining the Roumano-Bulgarian Frontier ... Hertslet, Map of Europe by Treaty, Vol. IV, London, 1891, p. 2996.

the frontier is, as a rule, affected according to the natural irregularities of the ground easy to recognize, and deviating as little as possible from the straight line which joins the two extreme points."

- C. Exchange of Notes between the Representatives of the Powers Parties to the Treaty of Berlin sanctioning various Acts elaborated by Boundary Commissions, August - September 1880 including Modifications made in the 6th and 7th Articles of the Act of December 17, 1878, defining the Roumano-Bulgaria Frontier drawn up by the Boundary Commission (ibid., p. 2996)

The Modification ... altered the original boundary near Silistra in favor of Bulgaria to maintain the Silistra - Karaorman road within Bulgaria.

- D. Treaty of Peace signed at Bucharest on August 10, 1913 by Bulgaria, Greece, Montenegro, Rumania, and Serbia, with ratifications exchanged on August 25, 1913. (BFSP op. cit., 107:658)

Ending the Second Balkan War, the treaty of peace transferred to Rumania the southern sector of Dobrudja. During World War I, Rumania, on the side of the Allied Powers, was forced to sue for peace. The Treaty of Bucharest (May 8, 1918) ceded to Bulgaria all of southern and part of northern Dobrudja. However, the ultimate defeat of the Central Powers soon invalidated this treaty.

- E. Treaty of Neuilly signed on November 27, 1919 by the Allied Powers and Bulgaria.

Article 27 (5) fixed the boundary "From the Black Sea to the Danube, the frontier existing on August 1, 1914; thence to the confluence of the Timok and the Danube, the principal channel of navigation of the Danube upstream." This action returned the terrestrial boundary to the line of the 1913 treaty.

- F. Treaty between Rumania and Bulgaria signed at Craiova on September 7, 1940 with Protocol, Declaration, Accords, Notes, etc. attached. (Monitorul Oficial (Partea I) Nr. 212, September 12, 1940.)

Article I states the boundary will be established according to the description in the attached protocol which forms an integral part of the treaty. The text of the protocol is annexed.

However, the intent of the treaty was to return to the 1902 boundary, i.e., the Treaty of Berlin line as modified, negating the annexation of southern Dobrudja after the Second Balkan War.

- G. Treaty of Peace with Bulgaria signed in Paris, February 10, 1947 (United Nations Treaty Series, 41:52).

The Treaty of Paris confirmed all Bulgarian boundaries "which existed on 1 January 1914." This action confirmed the Treaty of Craiova and the Congress of Berlin boundary in Dobrudja.

Identical language is used in the Treaty of Peace with Rumania signed on the same day in respect to the Bulgarian - Rumanian boundary.

Negotiations which have taken place between the two countries since the end of World War II have been concerned with administrative and technical matters. An agreement in 1948 arranged for persons living in the frontier area to cross the boundary to visit relatives and a convention in 1950 provided for the maintenance of boundary markers.

V. SUMMARY

No apparent conflict between Bulgaria and Rumania over their common boundary has arisen in the postwar period. The boundary is essentially that established by the Congress of Berlin in 1878, as amended.

For small-scale map compilation, the 1:1,000,000 maps affixed to the 1947 treaties of peace with Rumania and Bulgaria may be used. For large-scale maps, the native Rumanian 1:100,000 series published after 1940 (many reprinted in German military editions) are the best sources. Extreme caution should be exercised in the area around Silistra for many series show the boundary incorrectly.

PROTOCOL TO RUMANIAN-BULGARIAN ACCORD
SETTING FORTH NEW BORDER BETWEEN THE TWO COUNTRIES

Protocol to article I of the Treaty signed at
Craiova on September 7, 1940

1) The new frontier will begin on the Danube, immediately downstream from Silistra, and will end on the Black Sea at a point situated approximately 8 kilometers south of Mangalia.

Between these two points a conventional line will be traced leaving (1:200,000 map):

To Bulgaria, on the one hand, the following villages: Kalipetrovo, Kara-Orman, Kranova, Kadi-Keui (Cadiul), Terz-Kundu (Tores-Cindu), Ketchi-Deresi (Paraul Caprei), Deliyusuf Kuyussu (Paduroni), Hassantchi (Asanesti), Dourassy, Enidje (Enigea-Haidar), Hissarlik, Tchifut-Kuyussu, Murfatche (Predel), Husseintche (Viceva) and Akandji (Valtoarea).

And to Rumania the following villages: Almaly, Essekeui, Karvan Mic, Karvan Mare, Velikeui, Kalaidji (Faurei), Redjebkuyussu (Tudor Vladimirescu), Teke Deresi (Valea, Tapului), Dobrimir (Dobrimir din Deal), Hissarlik (Cetatea), Hairankeui (Dumbraveni), Dokusagatch (Magura), Dere-keui (Cerchezul), Doulikeui (Darabani), Valaly (Valcelele), Kafikeui (Coroana) and Ilanik (Vama Veche).

2) A mixed commission, consisting of an equal number of representatives on behalf of each of the two High contracting parties, will begin establishing, on the spot, the day after the exchange of the instruments of ratification of the present Treaty, the line of the new frontier in accordance with the texts and sketches (on a scale of 1:150,000 and 1:30,000) compiled and signed on September 5, 1902 by the Mixed Rumanian-Bulgarian Commission at Mangalia.

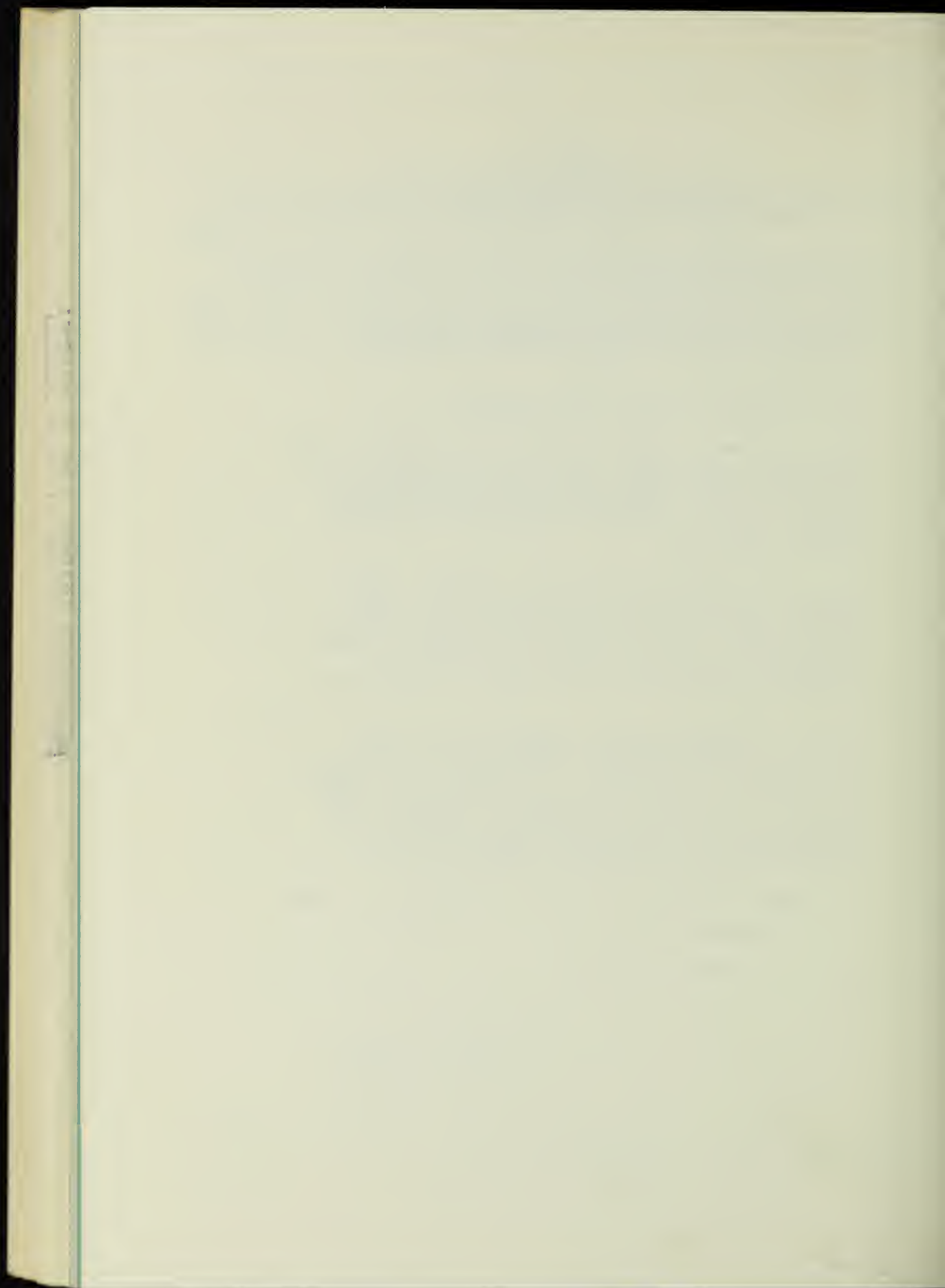
Done at Craiova, in duplicate, on September 7, 1940.

For Rumania:

Alexandru Cretzianu

For Bulgaria:

Svetoslav Pomenov



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map 210

International Boundary Study

NO. 54 - JULY 1, 1965

RWANDA - UGANDA BOUNDARY



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NO. 54 - JULY 1, 1965
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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

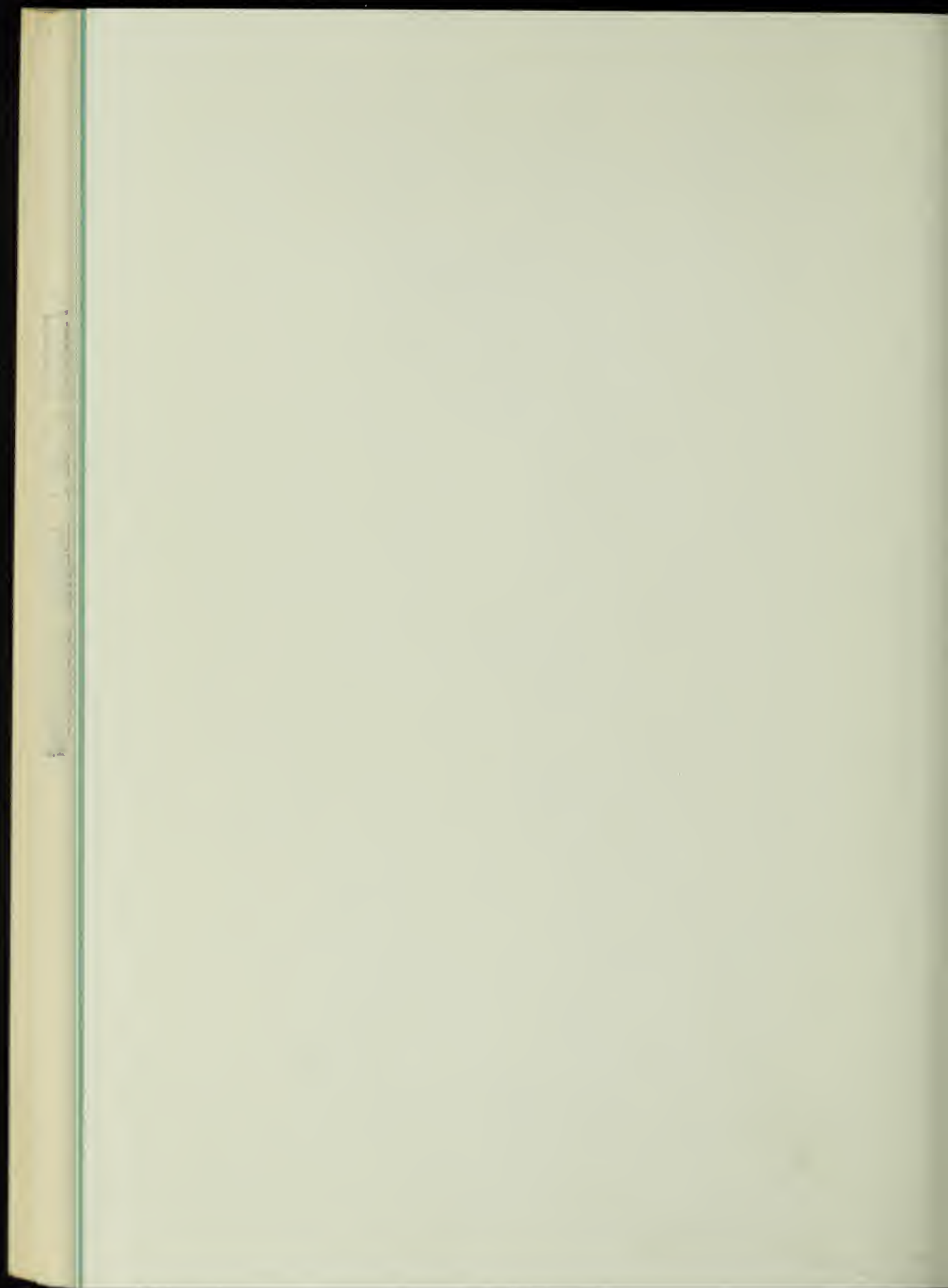
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Rwanda - Uganda Boundary

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The Geographer
Office of Research in Economics and Science
Bureau of Intelligence and Research



RWANDA - UGANDA BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Rwanda - Uganda boundary has a length of approximately 105 miles, of which about 40 percent consists of streams. Eastward from the Congo (Léopoldville) tripoint on Sabinio (Volcan Sabinyo) peak, it passes through an area of volcanic mountains for about 29 miles, follows the thalweg of the Vigaga (Kirurumu) for 8 miles, crosses a second area of high peaks (including 3 miles of swamps) for 37 miles, and follows downstream successively the thalwegs of the Lubirizi, Muvogero (Tshinzinga), and Kakitumba (Kagitumba) river for 31 miles to the Tanzania tripoint. The tripoint is located at the junction of the thalweg of the Kakitumba and the midstream of the Kagera. The boundary is demarcated throughout either by pillars or streams.

II. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

In 1886¹ British and German spheres of influence north and south, respectively, of a line beginning at the Indian Ocean near Vanga and, diverting to include Kilimanjaro in the German sphere, extended to the intersection of the parallel of one degree south latitude with the eastern shore of Lake Victoria, a point immediately north of the present port of Shirati. An Anglo-German treaty in 1890 reiterated the line between the Indian Ocean and the eastern shore of Lake Victoria and delimited initially the spheres of influence between the two states inland between the eastern shore and the Congo Free State² as follows:

...; thence [from the parallel of one degree south latitude with the eastern shore of Lake Victoria], crossing the lake on that parallel, it follows the parallel to the frontier of the Congo Free State, where it terminates.

Mount Mfumbiro

It is, however, understood that, on the west side of the lake, the sphere does not comprise Mount Mfumbiro³; if that mountain shall prove to lie to the south of the selected parallel, the line shall be deflected so as to exclude it, but shall nevertheless, return so as to terminate at the above-named point.

¹ Agreement between the British and German Governments, respecting the Sultanate of Zanzibar and the opposite East African Mainland, and their Spheres of Influence, October 29-November 1, 1886. Edward Hertslet, The Map of Africa by Treaty, 3v. 3rd ed. (London: Harrison and Sons, 1909), Vol. 3, pp. 882-886.

² The Berlin Conference of 1884-5 recognized King Leopold II of Belgium as the sovereign head of state for the International Association of the Congo. On July 1, 1885, the name of the entity was changed to the Congo Free State which was retained until the colony of the Belgian Congo was created in 1908. West of Lake Victoria the boundary of the Congo Free State was self-delimited in 1885 as the 30th meridian east of Greenwich southward to 1° 20' south latitude. The Congo was granted independence on June 30, 1960.

³ Mount Mufumbiro was found later to be a region of volcanoes lying both south of 1° S. latitude and west of the 30th meridian.

Designation of the territory north of the parallel of 1° south latitude as a British sphere of influence and to the south of the line as a German sphere ended a period of international bargaining. Prior to the treaty of 1890, the United Kingdom had claimed an area south of Lake Victoria extending to Lake Tanganyika, and Germany had claimed a boundary that would have extended northwestward from the eastern shore of Lake Victoria bisecting the Kingdom of Buganda, presently a part of Uganda. The latter claim would have placed western Buganda and an access route to the Nile valley within the German sphere.

In 1910 an Anglo-German-Belgian conference held in Brussels ended in agreement on Sabinio as the tripoint of the territories of the three states and led to a number of bilateral treaties among the participants. An Anglo-German agreement signed at Brussels on May 14, 1910, delimited the present Rwanda - Uganda boundary and the Tanzania - Uganda boundary. Details of the final delimitation and demarcation of the boundary between Sabinio and the source of the southwestern branch (Lubirizi) of the Muvogero are given in an Anglo-German Protocol signed at Kamwezi on October 30, 1911.

Apparently the Tanzania⁴ tripoint at the confluence of the Kagitumba and Kagera rivers is a traditional location dating from the period when both Rwanda and Tanganyika were administered as parts of German East Africa. By treaty the precise location of the tripoint would be at the junction of the thalweg of the Kagitumba and the midstream of the Kagera.

Between 1885 and World War I, Rwanda (formerly Ruanda) was administered with Burundi (formerly Urundi) and Tanganyika as part of German East Africa. Following World War I, a Belgian mandate was proclaimed for Ruanda-Urundi, and after World War II, Belgian administration of the entity continued as a trusteeship. Both Rwanda and Burundi became independent on July 1, 1962.

Although a somewhat vaguely defined area, Uganda was declared to be within the British sphere of influence by the Anglo-German agreement of July 1, 1890. In 1902 an Order in Council proclaimed Uganda a protectorate, whose limits were expanded or contracted according to political expediency. The United Kingdom terminated the protectorate in 1962 and Uganda became an independent state.

III. POLITICO - GEOGRAPHIC SETTING

The western segment of the Rwanda - Uganda boundary is anchored in the volcanic Mufumbiro (Virunga) where several peaks exceed 10,000 feet in elevation. In general elevations decrease eastward along the boundary to less than 4,500 feet in the vicinity of the Tanzania tripoint. The boundary traverses highly dissected surfaces, and streams flow in relatively narrow valleys. Most of the land has been deforested and many swamps drained for agricultural purposes. Several secondary roads connect Rwanda and Uganda.

⁴ Tanganyika was a British mandate between World War I and World War II and a British trusteeship from World War II until independence on December 9, 1961. The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar was constituted by a merger on April 27, 1964, and the name of the state was changed to the United Republic of Tanzania on October 29, 1964.

Located only a short distance south of the equator, the boundary area has two wet and two dry seasons with annual precipitation ranging between 40 and 60 inches. Temperature differences are quite pronounced between the high peaks of the Mufumbiro and the lower elevations at the eastern terminus of the boundary.

Most of the area adjacent to the boundary is densely populated with between 100 and 250 persons per square mile. Hills commonly are terraced and farmed in their entirety. In addition to numerous products grown for local consumption, coffee is an important export crop. Since World War I emigration from Rwanda into southwestern Uganda has been of sizeable proportions. At the present time, it is estimated that as many as 300,000 Rwandans may reside in Uganda more or less permanently. In addition a number of Batutsi political refugees from Rwanda are living in Uganda.

IV. BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The Anglo-German agreement of May 14, 1910 established the present Rwanda-Uganda boundary but allowed for a certain amount of interpretation of the final line by the boundary demarcation commission. The exact alignment of the boundary between the Congo tripoint of Volcan Sabinyo and the source of the southwestern branch (Lubirizi) of the Muvogero or Tshinzinga, marked by boundary pillar No. 38, is afforded by the Anglo-German protocol signed at Kamwezi on October 30, 1911 as follows:

1. The watershed from the highest point of Sabinio over the highest point of Mgahinga [Gahinga] to the highest point of Muhavura [Volcan Muhavura], marked by boundary pillar No. 1 where the road from north to south of the volcanoes crosses it between Sabinio and Mgahinga.

2. The spur in a north-easterly direction (referred to in the Convention [Anglo-German agreement of May 14, 1910] as the Mulemule-Mussongo spur) to the summit of the hill Nyarubebsa, marked by a direction pillar; thence to B.P. No. II, situated between the hills Nyarubebsa and Mussongo and on the road leading southwards; thence to the top of Mussongo, marked by a direction pillar; thence along the crest to the summit of the hill called (X) in the Convention, marked by B.P. No. III.

3. A curved line, as shown on the map, marked by B.P. Nos. IV, V, VI, VII, and VIII, to B.P. No. IX, which is on the point called (Y) in the Convention; thence a straight line to the top of the hill called (Z) in the Convention, marked by B.P. No. X; thence a straight line to the southern summit of the Vugamba (Wugamba) range, marked by B.P. No. XI.

4. The crest of this range marked as follows: by B.P. No. XII on the hill Kanyaminyenya [Kanyaminyinya], by direction pillars to B.P. No. XIII, on the most northerly point of the range, by direction pillars to B.P. No. XIV, on the hill Mabaremere [Maberemere], by a direction pillar to B.P. No. XV, which is due west (true) of the confluence of the rivers Vigaga (or Kirurumu) and Mugeru (Narugwambu) [Kasasha]; thence a straight line marked by a direction pillar to the confluence of these two rivers, marked by B.P. No. XVI.

5. The thalweg of the Kirurumu to its source, marked by B.P. No. XVII; thence in a straight line to B.P. No. XVIII, which is situated 4 kilom. north-west of the summit of the hill Gwassa, and is on the point called (B) in the Convention.

6. A straight line to the top of the hill Akasiru, marked by a direction pillar; thence a straight line to the top of the hill Sanja, marked by B.P. No. XIX.

7. A straight line to B.P. No. XX in the valley east of Sanja and on the path running east and west; thence a straight line to the top of the hill Kisivo [Kisive], marked by B.P. No. XXI.

8. The spur of the hill Kisivo in an E.N.E. direction, and marked by direction pillars to a conspicuous knoll at its foot, marked by B.P. No. XXII; thence to a direction pillar on the edge of the swamp; thence the centre line of the swamp, as shown on the map, to B.P. No. XXIII, situated at the foot of a prominent spur.

9. The crest of this spur, marked by a direction pillar to B.P. No. XXIV on the summit; thence the crest of the hill, marked by direction pillars, to the top of the hill Kavimbiri, marked by B.P. No. XXV.

10. The crest of the hill to B.P. No. XXVI, thence a straight line, marked by a direction pillar in the valley, to the summit of the conspicuous small hill Nyakara marked by a direction pillar; thence a straight line to the summit of the hill Kitanga, marked by a direction pillar; thence the crest of this hill and the spur leading north and north-east to a conspicuous knoll in the valley, marked by a direction pillar; thence a straight line to a direction pillar on a conspicuous spur of the hill Nebishagara; thence the crest of this spur to the top of the hill, marked by B.P. No. XXVII.

11. A line following the crest and a long spur of this hill as shown on the map, and marked by direction pillars, to the top of the hill Magumbizi, marked by B.P. No. XXVIII; thence a line following a very conspicuous water parting to the top of the hill Kivisa, marked by B.P. No. XXIX; thence along a spur of this hill to its northern end, marked by a direction pillar; thence a straight line to a direction pillar in the valley; thence a straight line to the southern summit of the hill Ndegga [Ndegga], marked by B.P. No. XXX; thence a straight line to a conspicuous small hill on the east side of the River Muvumba (Luvumba), marked by a direction pillar; thence a straight line to the top of another conspicuous small hill, marked by B.P. No. XXXI.

12. A series of straight lines, as shown on the map, following the eastern slopes of the Moshuri range, and marked at each change of direction by a direction pillar, and B.P. Nos. XXXII and XXXIII, both on prominent spurs.

13. A similar series of straight lines, following round the slopes of the valley formed between the Mushuri range and the spur ending in the hill Kitoff (Kitofu), marked by direction pillars and by B.P. Nos. XXXIV and XXXV, on prominent spurs; continuing, as shown on the map, round the slopes of the hill Kitoff [Kitofu], marked by direction pillars and by B.P. No. XXXVI, on a prominent spur at the southern end of that hill.

14. A straight line to a direction pillar on a spur on the south-east of Kitoff; thence a straight line to a direction pillar on a spur on the east of Kitoff; thence a straight line to a knoll at the foot of this spur, marked by a direction pillar; and thence a straight line to the saddle between Kitoff and Mavari (Mabare), marked by B.P. No. XXXVII.

15. The thalweg leading north-eastwards, marked by a direction pillar, to the source of the south-western branch of the River Chizinga, marked by B.P. No. XXXVIII.

The remainder of the Rwanda - Uganda boundary is delimited in the Anglo-German agreement of May 14, 1910 as follows:

... From the source of the River Chizinga (Kissinga) [southwestern source] the boundary follows the thalweg of the River Chizinga (Kissinga) to its confluence with the River Kachwamba-Kakitumba [Kagitumba].

From the confluence of the Rivers Chizinga (Kissinga) and Kachwamba-Kakitumba the boundary follows the thalweg of the River Kachwamba-Kakitumba to the confluence of the Rivers Kachwamba-Kakitumba and Kagera.

In 1924, Paragraph 50 of a protocol between the United Kingdom and Belgium delimited the northern segment of the boundary between Rwanda-Urundi and Tanganyika as follows:

50. From this point [the junction of the thalweg of the Mwibu and the midstream of the Kagera] down the Kagera River to the Uganda Frontier the two Governments agree that the midstream of this latter river shall be accepted as the boundary between the Tanganyika Territory and Ruanda.

The Anglo-German agreement of 1910 and the Anglo-Belgian protocol 1924 locate the Tanzania tripoint at the junction of the thalweg of the Kakitumba and the midstream of the Kagera.

V. PRESENT SITUATION

There are no known disputes relative to the alignment of the Rwanda - Uganda boundary.

APPENDIX

DOCUMENTS

1. Agreement between the British and German Governments, respecting Africa and Heligoland, Berlin, July 1, 1890. Edward Hertslet, The Map of Africa by Treaty, 3 v. 3rd ed. (London: Harrison and Sons, 1909) Vol. 3, pp. 899-906.
2. Agreement between Great Britain and Germany Settling the Boundary between Uganda and German East Africa. Signed at Brussels, May 14, 1910. British and Foreign State Papers, Vol. 107, Part I, 1914, pp. 394-397.
3. Protocol between Great Britain and Germany Describing the Frontier between the Uganda Protectorate and German East Africa. Signed at Kamwezi, October 30, 1911. Memorandum attached to the Protocol List of Boundary Pillars on the Anglo-German Boundary, Sabinio to River Chizinga, with approximate Co-ordinates. Ibid., Vol. 107, Part I, 1914, pp. 397-402. (Boundary demarcation map prepared by British War Office in 1912; GSGS, No. 2663.)
4. Protocol respecting the Boundary between Tanganyika Territory and the Belgian Mandated Territory of Ruanda - Urundi, Kigoma, August 5, 1924; and Notes Exchanged between the British and Belgian Governments, Brussels, May 17, 1926. United Kingdom Treaty Series No. 6 (1927), Command 2812 (three boundary maps included). Also included in British and Foreign State Papers, Vol. 123, Part I, 1914, pp. 462-467.
5. Jentgen, P., "Notice de la Carte des Frontières du Congo Belge." Atlas Général du Congo (Bruxelles, 1953).
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7. Atlas of Uganda, Department of Lands and Surveys, Uganda, First Edition, 1962.

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2. Ruanda - Urundi: scale 1:100,000; Service Cartographique, Ministère des Colonies; published 1936 by Institut Cartographique Militaire, Bruxelles, Belgium; sheets KASINDI, 2A, 2, 3, and 4.
3. Uganda: scale 1:50,000; published 1958-63 by Lands and Surveys Department, Uganda; series Y732; sheets 93/III, 93/IV, 94/III, 94/I, and 94/II.

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International Boundary Study

NO. 55 - SEPTEMBER 1, 1965

TANZANIA - UGANDA BOUNDARY



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

No. 55

TANZANIA - UGANDA BOUNDARY

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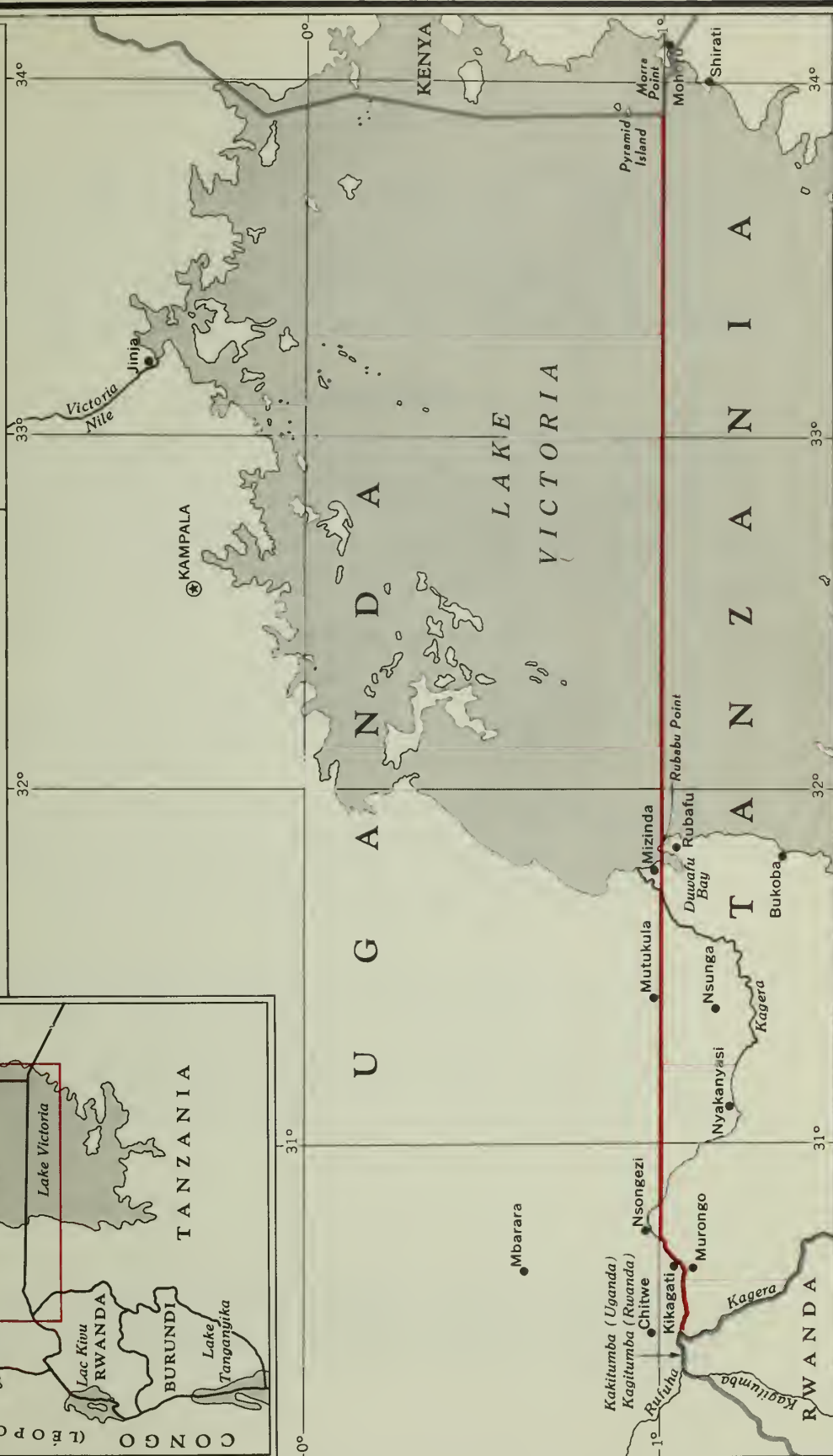
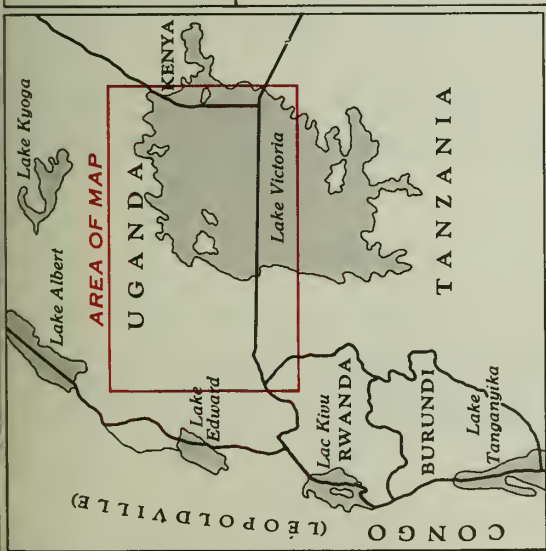
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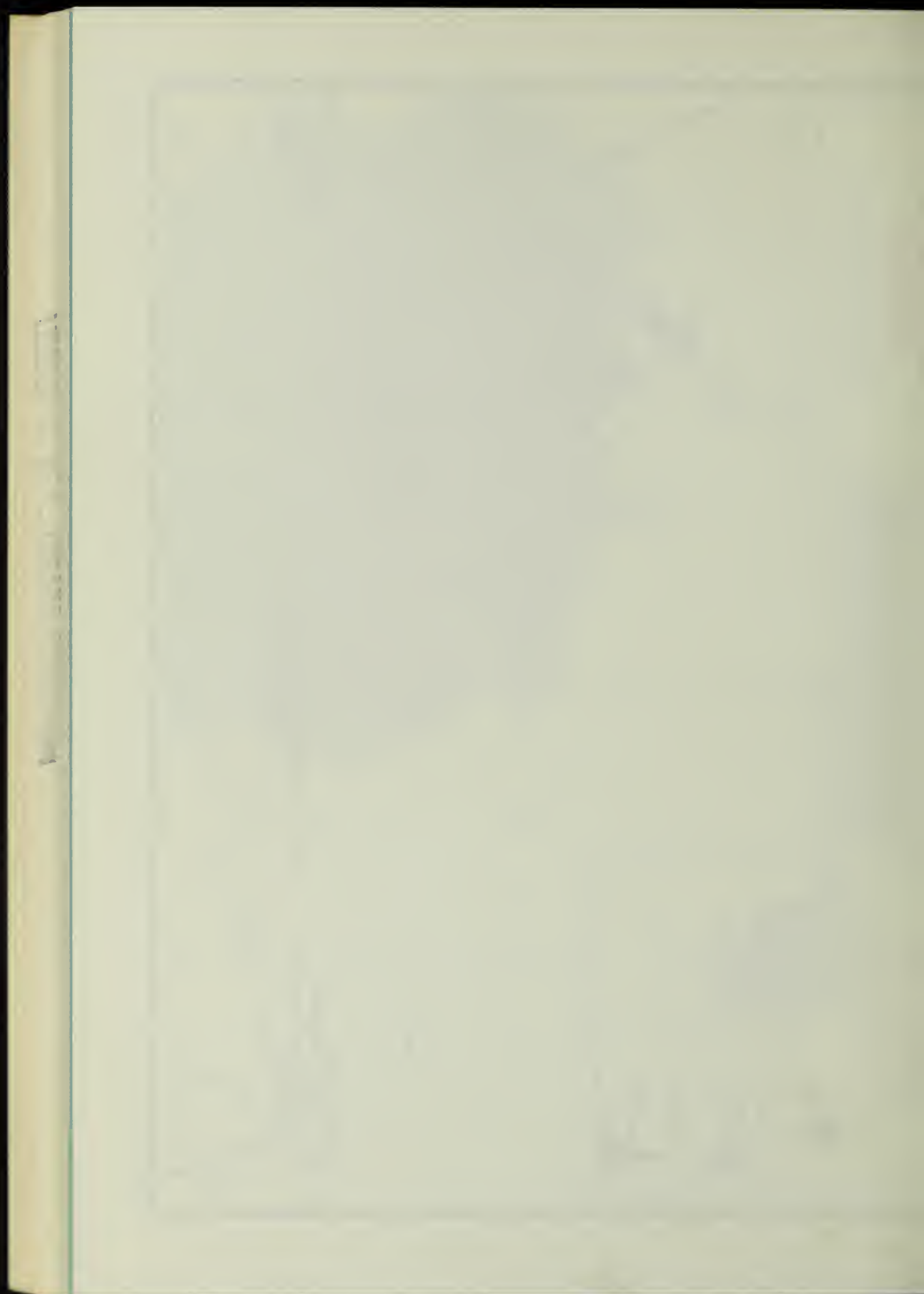
TANZANIA-UGANDA BOUNDARY

BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Tanzania-Uganda boundary has a length of about 260 miles. Eastward from the Rwanda tripoint at the junction of the thalweg of the Kagera and the midstream of the Kagera, it follows the thalweg of the Kagera for 28 miles and then the parallel of one degree south latitude for 232 miles. The part of the boundary demarcated by the parallel consists of a land sector 69 miles in length demarcated by the pillars between the Kagera and Lake Victoria and a lake sector to the Kenya tripoint. The tripoint in Lake Victoria is located at approximately 33°36' E. longitude.

Source of Data: Office of the Geographer, Department of State





TANZANIA - UGANDA BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Tanzania - Uganda boundary has a length of about 260 miles. Eastward from the Rwanda tripoint at the junction of the thalweg of the Kakitumba (Kagitumba) and the midstream of the Kagera, it follows the thalweg of the Kagera for 28 miles and then the parallel of one degree south latitude for 232 miles. The part of the boundary formed by the parallel consists of a land sector 69 miles in length demarcated by pillars between the Kagera and Lake Victoria and a lake sector to the Kenya tripoint. The tripoint in Lake Victoria is located at approximately 33° 56' E. longitude.

II. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

In 1886 the British and German spheres of influence in East Africa were located to the north and south, respectively, of a line which began at the Indian Ocean near Vanga, diverted to include Mt. Kilimanjaro in German territory, and extended to the intersection of the parallel of 1° south with the eastern shore of Lake Victoria, at a point immediately north of the present port of Shirati. An Anglo-German treaty in 1890 reiterated the 1886 line between the Indian Ocean and the eastern shore of Lake Victoria and delimited spheres of influence between the two states inland from the eastern shore to the Congo Free State (presently Democratic Republic of the Congo) as follows:

...; thence [from the parallel of one degree south latitude with the eastern shore of Lake Victoria], crossing the lake on that parallel, it follows the parallel to the frontier of the Congo Free State, where it terminates.

Prior to the treaty of 1890, the United Kingdom had claimed an area south of Lake Victoria extending to Lake Tanganyika, and Germany had claimed a boundary that would have extended northwestward from the eastern shore of Lake Victoria bisecting the Kingdom of Buganda, presently a part of Uganda. The latter claim would have placed western Buganda and an access route to the Nile valley within the German sphere.

An Anglo-German Agreement signed at Brussels on May 14, 1910, modified part of the boundary between British and German territories initially established as the parallel of one degree south latitude by the treaty of 1890. Modified were the sectors between the Congo tripoint and the junction of the Kakitumba and Kagera, comprising the present Rwanda-Uganda boundary¹, and between the junction and the second crossing of the parallel of one degree south latitude by the Kagera, comprising the western segment of the present Tanzania - Uganda boundary.

¹ Details of the final delimitation and demarcation of the Rwanda-Uganda boundary between the Congo tripoint of Sabinio and the southwestern branch (Lubirizi) of the Tshinzinga (Muvogero) are given in an Anglo-German protocol signed at Kamwezi on October 30, 1911.

Between 1885 and World War I, Tanganyika was a part of German East Africa along with Ruanda-Urundi. Following World War I Tanganyika became a British mandate and Ruanda-Urundi a Belgian mandate, and after World War II both were made trust territories. Tanganyika was granted independence on December 9, 1961. The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar was constituted by a merger on April 27, 1964, and the name of the state was changed to the United Republic of Tanzania on October 29, 1964.

Although a somewhat vaguely defined area, Uganda was declared to be within the British sphere of influence by the Anglo-German Agreement of July 1, 1890. In 1902 an Order in Council proclaimed Uganda a protectorate, the limits of which have been changed a number of times. The United Kingdom terminated the protectorate in 1962 and Uganda became an independent state.

III. POLITICO-GEOGRAPHIC SETTING

The Tanzania - Uganda boundary traverses the Central Plateau of East Africa including Lake Victoria. In effect the plateau is a large basin between the eastern and western branches of the Great Rift valley and adjacent uplands. Eastward from the Rwanda tripoint the land slopes gradually to Lake Victoria and is characterized by numerous low hills. The Kagera is navigable by small vessels for only a short distance in its lower course. The river is the principal tributary of Lake Victoria, but the chief source of water supply for the lake is rainfall.

The boundary extends across Lake Victoria for 163 miles. With an area of 26,828 square miles, the lake is second in size only to Lake Superior among the fresh-water bodies of the world. It is about 3,717 feet above sea level and the greatest known depth is 270 feet. Lake Victoria is about 250 miles from north to south and 200 miles from east to west. Evaporation accounts for as much as 80% of the total water supply received by the lake from precipitation and streams. The lake is drained northward from an outlet near Jinja, Uganda by the Victoria Nile. The level of the lake is maintained partly by the Owens Falls Dam on the river, which raises the level of the lake about three to four feet. Lake steamers serve Jinja, Entebbe, and Port Bell in Uganda; Bukoba, Mwanza, and Musoma in Tanzania; and Kisumu in Kenya.

The boundary area has a tropical savanna type of climate characterized by hot summers and warm winters. Annual precipitation increases eastward along the boundary from 20-30 inches to an estimated 80-90 inches near the center of Lake Victoria, and then decreases gradually to the Kenya tripoint. The typical vegetation west of Lake Victoria consists of grasslands.

The international boundary is not an exact line of separation between the peoples of Tanzania and Uganda. Use of the parallel of 1° south as part of the boundary resulted in placing 15 square miles of Haya land (on the southern side of the Kagera, at the outlet of the river and the extremity of Rubabu point in Lake Victoria) to the north of the parallel in Uganda. Whereas, an area traditionally part of Ankole and Buganda, which lies south of the parallel, is included in Tanzania. Most of the people along the boundary are engaged in rudimental sedentary farming. There are some areas of relatively intensive agriculture such as practiced adjacent to Lake Victoria. Population densities are moderately high, the highest being near the lake. A number of roads cross the boundary between the two states.

IV. BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The Anglo-German agreement of 1910 and an Anglo-Belgian protocol of 1924 locate the Rwanda² tripoint at the junction of the thalweg of the Kakitumba and the midstream of the Kagera.

The Anglo-German agreement of 1910 states:

From the confluence of the Rivers Chizinga (Kissinga) [Muvogero or Tshinzinga] and Kachwamba-Kikitumba [Kakitumba] the boundary follows the thalweg of the River Kachwamba-Kakitumba to the confluence of the Rivers Kachwamba-Kakitumba and Kagera.

Paragraph 50 of the Anglo-Belgian protocol of 1924 states:

50. From this point [the junction of the thalweg of the Mwibu and the midstream of the Kagera] down the Kagera River to the Uganda Frontier the two Governments agree that the midstream of this latter river shall be accepted as the boundary between the Tanganyika Territory and Ruanda.

The Anglo-German agreement of 1910 also determined the alignment of the boundary from the Rwanda tripoint to Lake Victoria as follows:

From the confluence of the Rivers Kachwamba-Kakitumba [Kakitumba] and Kagera the boundary follows the thalweg of the River Kagera as far as the second crossing of the parallel of 1° south by the River Kagera between boundary pillars numbered 26 and 27.

The boundary then follows the line of boundary pillars already erected along the 1° south as far as the intersection of this line with the western shore of Lake Victoria.

The Kenya³ tripoint is located in Lake Victoria on the parallel of one degree south latitude and approximately 33° 56' E. longitude. A schedule annexed to a British Order in Council⁴ dated February 1, 1926 affords the following information on the Kenya - Uganda boundary at the tripoint:

² Both Rwanda, formerly Ruanda, and Burundi, formerly Urundi, became independent on July 1, 1962.

³ The United Kingdom obtained control of the Kenya area in 1888 through the British East Africa Company. In 1895 it was transferred to the Crown, becoming the East Africa Protectorate. From 1920 to independence on December 12, 1963, Kenya had the two fold status of Colony and Protectorate. The protectorate was limited to a ten-mile strip along the coast south of the north branch of the Tana river.

⁴ The present part of Kenya adjacent to Lake Victoria was transferred actually in 1902 to the East Africa Protectorate (Kenya) in accordance with a Uganda Order in Council.

Commencing in the waters of Lake Victoria on a parallel 1° south latitude, at a point due south of the westernmost point of Pyramid Island; thence the boundary follows a straight line due north to that point;

V. PRESENT SITUATION

There are no known disputes relative to the alignment of the Tanzania - Uganda boundary.

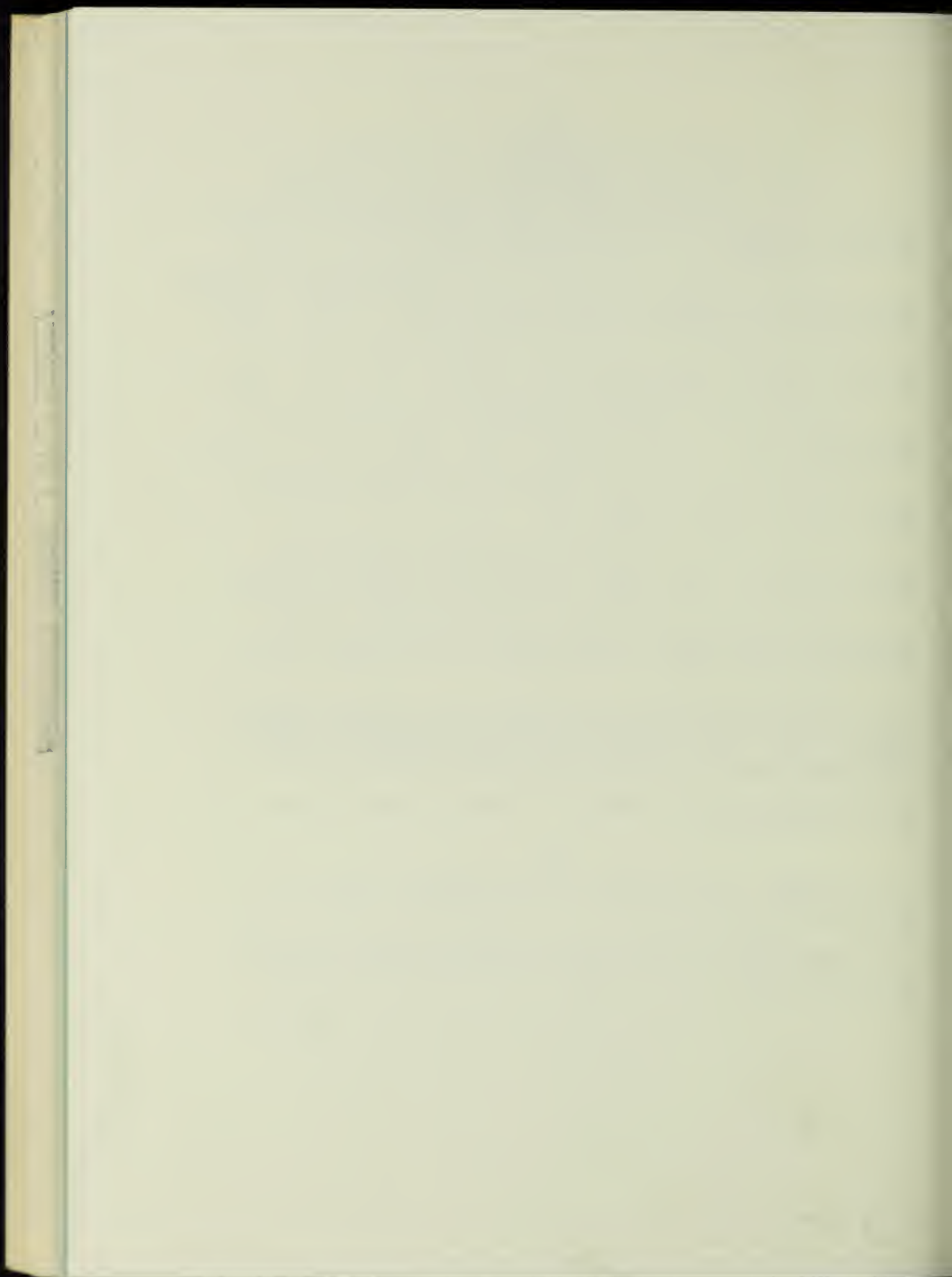
APPENDIX

DOCUMENTS

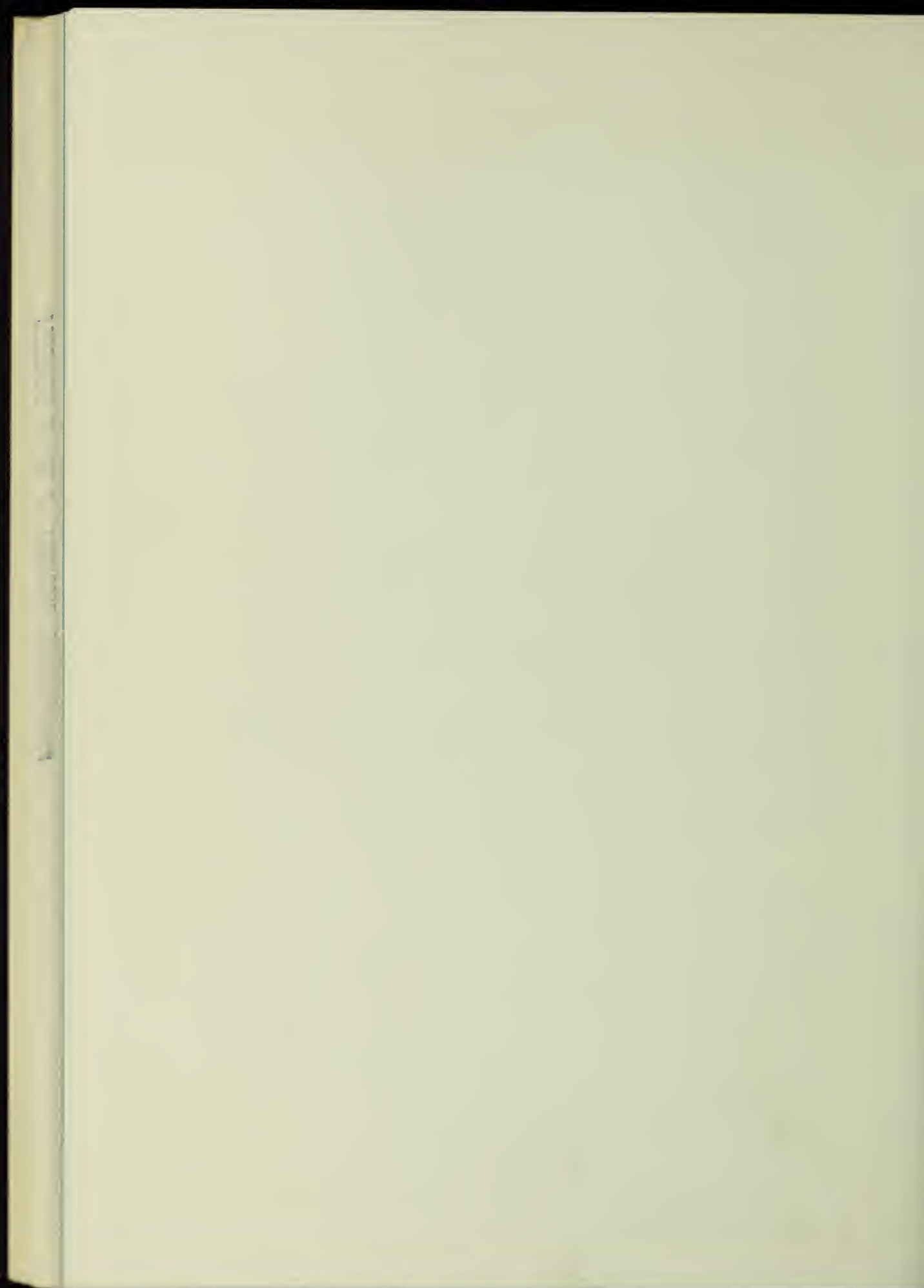
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Map 26
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International Boundary Study

NO. 56 — OCTOBER 1, 1965

BULGARIA — GREECE BOUNDARY



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

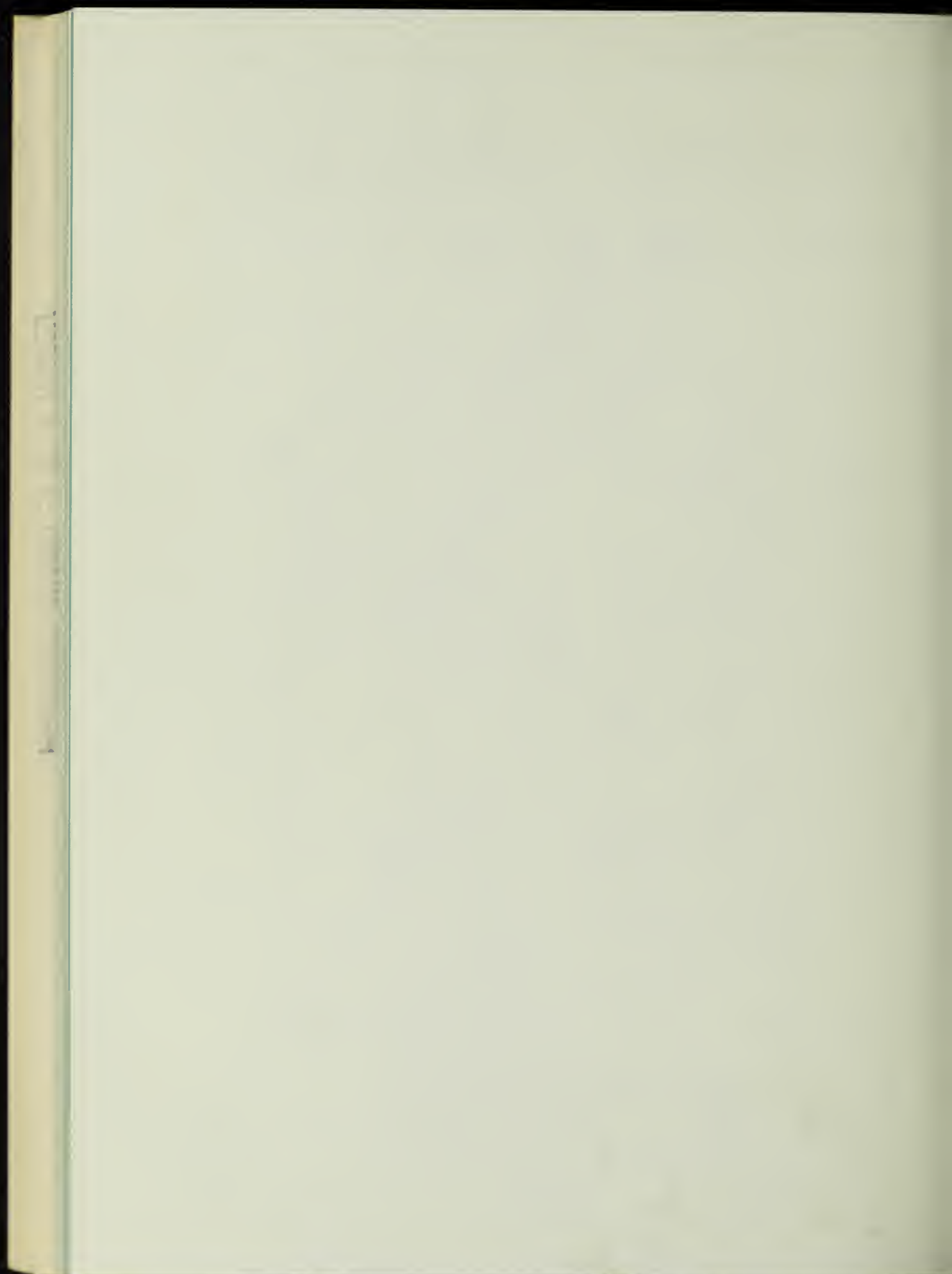
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Bulgaria - Greece Boundary

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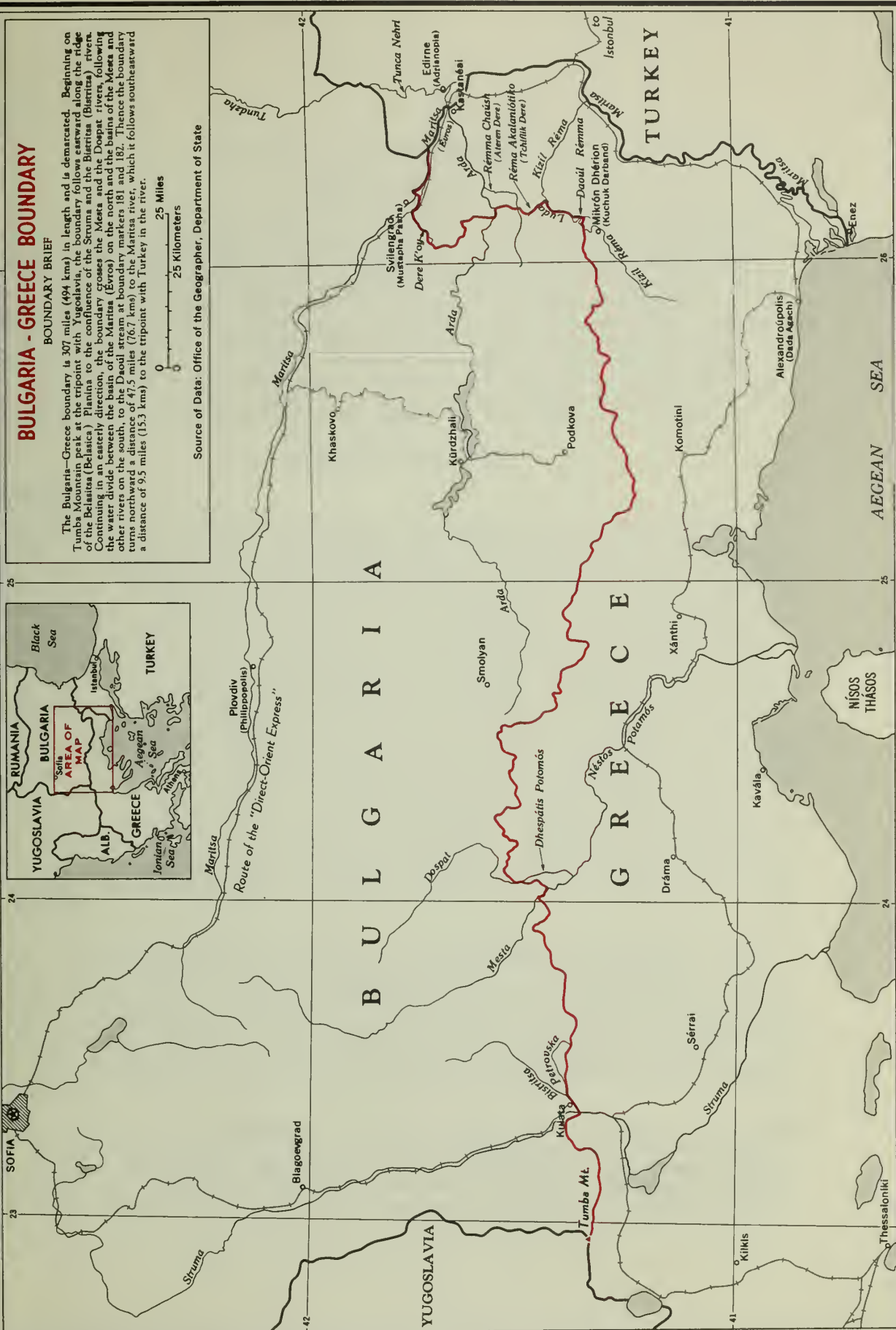
BULGARIA - GREECE BOUNDARY

BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Bulgaria-Greece boundary is 307 miles (494 kms) in length and is demarcated. Beginning on Tumba Mountain peak at the tripoint with Yugoslavia, the boundary follows eastward along the ridge of the Belasitsa (Belasica) Planina to the confluence of the Struma and the Bistritza (Bistritza) rivers. Continuing in an easterly direction, the boundary crosses the Mesta and the Dospat rivers, following the water divide between the basin of the Maritsa (Evros) on the north and the basins of the Mesta and other rivers on the south, to the Dasül stream at boundary markers 181 and 182. Thence the boundary turns northward a distance of 47.5 miles (76.7 kms) to the Maritsa river, which it follows southeastward a distance of 9.5 miles (15.3 kms) to the tripoint with Turkey in the river.

Source of Data: Office of the Geographer, Department of State

0 25 Miles
0 25 Kilometers





BULGARIA - GREECE BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Bulgaria - Greece boundary is 307 miles (494 kms) in length and is demarcated. Beginning on Tumba Mountain peak at the tripoint with Yugoslavia, the boundary follows eastward along the ridge of the Belasica (Belasitca) Planina, to the confluence of the Struma and the Bistriza (Bistritsa) Rivers. Continuing in an easterly direction, the boundary crosses the Mesta (Gr: Nestos) and the Dospat rivers, following the water divide between the basin of the Maritsa on the north and the basins of the Mesta and other rivers on the south, to the Daoul river at boundary markers 181 and 182. Thence the boundary turns northward a distance of 47.5 miles (76.7 kms.) to the Maritsa (Evros) River, which it follows southeastward a distance of 9.5 miles (15.3 kms) to the tripoint with Turkey in the river.

II. GEOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

A. Physiography

The Bulgaria - Greece boundary area is situated in an east-west direction near the center of the Balkan Peninsula. Like other parts of the Balkans, the topography is rugged and irregular. From the north on the Bulgarian side, the chief physiographic feature is the Balkan Mountain range, or Stara Planina, located south of the lower Danube and curving eastward toward the Black Sea. The main chain of the Balkans presents a long gentle slope to the Danube River. At the foot of the steep southern slope lies a long narrow fertile valley bounded to the south by a linear range of hills known as the Anti-Balkans. Beyond this, in turn, is the wide valley whose southern wall is formed by the slopes of the Rhodope Mountains which follow generally along the boundary in an east-west direction. The broken and dissected ranges of the Rhodope are lower in the Thracian area where the mountains open into the well-developed Maritsa Valley. Beyond the Maritsa, to the east, the Rhodope form the Istranca Mountains in the Bulgaria - Turkey boundary area. On the western end of the Rhodope are the massive Rila Mountains whose highest peak of 9,597 feet is the highest point of East Central Europe. South of the border the wedge-shaped Rhodope extend to the Aegean, east of the Vardar valley at Thessaloniki. The Rhodope together with the Balkan ranges enclose the fertile Rumelian Basin (Maritsa Basin) whose largest depression opens toward the Aegean and is drained by the Maritsa River.

In Greece, the boundary region is physiographically an extension of the Balkans. As in Bulgaria, the Rhodope are higher and more numerous in the west with little land for upland plain or plateau. Altitudes range from about 2000 to 8000 feet presenting formidable barriers especially along the boundary. The mountains are drained southward by the Struma (Gr: Strimon) and the Mesta (Gr: Nestos) rivers which cross the boundary to the Aegean Sea. The rivers including their affluents, after cutting through rocky and narrow mountain defiles, flow through a number of relatively fertile basins and plains.

The rivers vary considerably in volume. In spring, because of melting snows, in fall due to rains, the rivers are deepest and are torrential in the mountains. Downstream the rivers form large pools and marshes, meander a great deal and frequently change course during floods. In summer, volume in the rivers diminishes as much as 90 percent permitting fording in many places.

B. Land Use

The fertile Rumelian Basin is a major agricultural area of Bulgaria, where intensive gardening is conducted. On the higher lands fruit trees and potatoes are the main crops, especially around Sofia. On the lower lands wheat and corn are the main crops. The plum orchard furnishes the slivovica, an alcoholic beverage, which is a staple to the Bulgarian peasant; the vines and the almond tree are other crops. Tobacco is an important export item; some cotton is also produced along the Maritsa. Perhaps most characteristic of agriculture in the Rumelian Basin is the vast fields of roses, especially around Kazanlik, which are cultivated on an industrial scale. Bulgaria is the chief world exporter of rose essence for perfumery, although chemical producers have hurt the industry.

South of the boundary, in Greece, wheat, barley and corn are the leading crops. Vine culture and the mulberry tree are common, and tobacco is an important crop especially in the Vardar valley.

C. Climate

Climate in the boundary area ranges between continental and Mediterranean. In Bulgaria the continental climate prevails. The summers are hot, the winters cold; and the rainfall, although distributed throughout the year, is heaviest in summer. Temperature ranges from the mean minimum of 26° in January to the mean maximum of 74° in July; rainfall ranges from the mean minimum of 1.24 inches in October to 3.4 inches in May.

In Greece south of the Rhodope, the Mediterranean climate prevails especially along the Aegean coastal areas. The summers are hot, the winters mild. The rainfall is in the winter, and very seldom during the dry summers. Temperature ranges from the mean minimum of 41° in January to the mean maximum of 80° in July; rainfall ranges from the mean minimum of .7 inches in July to 3.4 inches in February. As might be expected, considerable snow falls in the mountain areas.

D. Political Geography

The Bulgaria - Greece boundary is as intertangled in political geography as any boundary in the Balkans. Throughout history, the boundary area has been exposed to multitudinous internal and external influences giving rise to the general impression of the entire Balkan Peninsula as one of continuous turmoil. Like the Bulgaria - Turkey¹ and the Greece - Turkey² boundaries, the Bulgaria - Greece boundary centers on control of the key landbridge connecting Europe and Asia. Today the main land and rail routes from northwestern Europe via Belgrade and Sofia (e.g., Orient Express) follow the Maritsa valley through Plovdiv (Philippopolis), Edirne (Adrianople), and cross the Straits to Asia. This same route brings to mind pre-World War I international rivalries and intrigue relating to the "Berlin to Baghdad Railway." The strategic importance of the region, therefore, involves not only the interests of all countries in the vicinity but also the rival interest of the Great Powers.

¹ IBS No. 49, Bulgaria-Turkey Boundary, May 15, 1965.

² IBS No. 41, Greece-Turkey Boundary, November 23, 1964.

1. Early History

In early classical times the boundary area was in great measure Hellenic in character and dominated by Greece. In the fifth century B.C., at the height of classical Greece, most of the Balkan Peninsula including the Black Sea Region was occupied by Greeks. Less than two centuries later, the boundary region itself became the locale from which Philip of Macedon³ commenced the conquest of the Greek City-States on the Aegean Peninsula and later his son Alexander conquered Asia Minor and the Near East.

In the first century A.D., the boundary area was a part of the Roman Empire which controlled the entire Balkan Peninsula. During nearly three centuries of Roman rule the area prospered until large numbers of "barbarians" assaulted the frontier outposts of the Empire. The strategic site at the confluence of three rivers (Arda, Maritsa, and Tunca) was recognized by the Roman Emperor Hadrian (117-138) who founded the city of Hadrianopolis to control access to land routes in all directions.

Although the defeat of the "barbarians" in the historic battle of Adrianople (Edirne) in 378 A.D. was a major victory in Rome's struggle to maintain the empire's frontier on the Danube River, the entire Balkan region was soon occupied by Gothic and other Teutonic tribes. Great Slavic invasions commenced in the sixth century. Crossing the Danube, they later occupied the entire Balkans in such numbers as to give a Slavic character to the Peninsula.

The Bulgars, believed to have arrived in the area about the same time as the Slavs, gradually merged with the Slavic peoples. By 670 A.D. the Bulgars established themselves south of the Danube around Varna. While conquering, they were absorbed by the more numerous Slavs; they adopted Slavic culture and language but retained the Bulgar name and political organization.

Until the Turkish conquests of the Balkans in the fourteenth century, the fate of Bulgaria varied according to the relative strengths and weaknesses of its rulers, and that of the Byzantine Empire headquartered at Constantinople. The division of the Roman Empire between west and east in the fourth century, together with the ascendancy of the Eastern or Byzantine half, led to increasing Greek, as opposed to Latin, political and cultural influences. In this respect the very closeness of the boundary area to Constantinople, the "new Rome", favored Greek over Bulgar, Slavic, and other political and cultural interests. Thus within the varied twists in politics and society and especially in the upper echelons of civil and church authority, Greek influence predominated.

2. Ottoman Period

The Ottoman Turks crossed the Dardanelles about the middle of the fourteenth century to commence an energetic campaign against the declining Byzantine Empire. Adrianople, a key city on the landbridge, captured in 1361, became the Ottoman capital. Plovdiv (Philippopolis) was taken in 1364, and Sofia in 1382. In 1389, the Turks defeated the Serbs, their Rumanian allies, as well as the Bulgarians, bringing the entire area of the present Bulgaria - Greece boundary under Ottoman control.

³ After whom Philippopolis, now Plovdiv, was named.

Most of northern and eastern Greece and the entire Balkan area was captured before the fall of Constantinople in 1453. In 1456, Sultan Muhammad II captured Athens and Attica, deposing the Venetian rulers who had previously defeated the Frankish conquerors.

The first centuries of Ottoman rule were preferable to the feudal rule of the westerners whose early enthusiasm for the Jerusalem Crusades led to hostility between Latin (western) and Greek (eastern) Christianity. By the fifteenth century, two hundred years of Frankish, Venetian, and other western domination resulted in such bitterness among Orthodox Greeks to make Muslims seem more welcome than the Catholics of Rome.

It is not necessary here to delve into the ramifications of the rise and fall of Ottomanism and of Great Power Rivalries in the Balkans. Suffice to say that the Greek War of Liberation began in 1821 and was supposedly terminated by the Treaty of London of July 1827, which prescribed independence. However, it was not until Russian armies almost reached Constantinople that the Sultan formally accepted Greek independence in the Treaty of Adrianople in September 1829.

After prolonged debate, the London Convention of May 7, 1832 confirmed an independent Kingdom of Greece under the protection of Great Britain, France and Russia. The Convention also delimited the boundary to include the entire Peloponnesus (the minimum area debated) in Greece and a northern boundary extending from the Gulf of Volos on the Aegean Sea westward to the Gulf of Ambracia (Amvrakikos).

The later years of the 19th and the early 20th century, despite episodes of internal quiescence, were years of increasing agitation. Both within Greek and in other Balkan regions, nationalist forces of all colors, the European Powers, and adventurers of all sorts competed and cooperated in raising banners of liberation against the "decaying and corrupt" Ottoman Empire. The fact that high "moral purpose" went hand in hand with territorial acquisition was fortunate but did not deter the switching of sides, "Joining with the devil," or jockeying for gain at the expense of an ally.

Bulgaria remained under Turkish domination until the Russo-Turkish Wars of 1877-78 when Russian forces advanced to Chatalja near the Bosphorus. Bulgaria then became an autonomous tributary of the Turkish Sultan. While the Powers at the Congress of Berlin in 1878 limited the expansive proportions that Russia desired ceded to Bulgaria in the Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878), the Treaty of Berlin (July 13, 1878) established a compact state of Bulgaria extending from the Balkan Mountains to the Danube River. Bulgaria's subject status under the Ottoman Sultan remained.

As for Greece, the Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878) ignored territorial claims in northern Greece, in favor of the interests of creating "Greater Bulgaria" with access to the Mediterranean and practically the whole of Macedonia included. Nor did the Congress of Berlin in upsetting "San Stefano" satisfy Greek demands beyond an injunction to Sultan 'Abd al-Hamid II to seek an agreement with Greek King George for the modification of the Greek frontier. This was finally done in 1881 when Greece acquired most of Thessalia (Thessaly) and a part of Epirus, thereby extending the Greek boundary from the southern slopes of Mt. Olympus in the east to the Arachthos (Arakhtos) river in the west.

3. The Balkan Wars

Political and territorial change quickened in the years preceding World War I. Within Ottoman Turkey, there was increasing demand for governmental

reform. In Bulgaria and other Balkan provinces the growing forces of nationalism and independence, accelerated by increasing European power rivalries, were leading toward warfare. In 1908, Bulgarian Prince Ferdinand, taking advantage of the Young Turk revolution and Austro-Hungarian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina which rendered the Turkish Porte temporarily powerless, proclaimed himself Czar of independent Bulgaria.

As in Greece, Bulgaria's independence whetted and magnified memories of the Bulgarian Empire in medieval times. During the summer of 1912, a secret treaty between Bulgaria and Serbia, followed by similar agreements with Greece and Montenegro, committed the Balkan Allies to drive Turkey out of the Balkans. Arrangements were made while Turkey was at war with Italy (1911-1912), a war which ended with Turkey enfeebled. Disorder and agitation in Macedonia and Thrace increased. In October the Balkan Allies presented joint demands to Turkey for reforms in Macedonia, which were unacceptable. Turkey then declared war on Bulgaria and Serbia on October 17, 1912. On October 18 Greece declared war on Turkey; this marked the beginning of the First Balkan War. Shortly thereafter the Bulgarian Army took Mustapha Pasha (Sevilengrad) and Kirk Kilissee (Kirkklareli), and in March 1913 captured Adrianople itself. The Turkish army retreated to within twenty-five miles of Constantinople, reducing European Turkey to the Chatalja and Gallipoli peninsulas. The Greek Army, also successful, captured Salonika on the Aegean and Janina not far from the Albania border and also acquired Crete, Samos and other islands.

The success of the Balkan League countries quickly exposed their separate and conflicting ambitions; these became readily apparent in the Bulgaria - Greece boundary area. For example, Salonika was claimed by Bulgaria, Greece, and Serbia. Bulgaria's claims, included in the earlier secret agreements, were quickly frustrated by the Serbs and the Greeks who, alarmed by Bulgarian successes, turned against their former ally. As a result, Bulgaria attacked the Serbian and Greek armies along the Macedonian frontier in June. Thereupon began the short but intense Second Balkan War, in which Turkey joined Greece, Serbia, Montenegro, and Rumania against Bulgaria. With Bulgaria fighting on nearly all fronts, Turkey recaptured Adrianople easily. An armistice took place in July and a Treaty of Peace was signed at Bucharest on August 10, 1913 between Bulgaria and her former Allies.

Territorial changes between Bulgaria and Greece as a result of the Treaty of Bucharest delimited the Bulgaria - Greece boundary from the Strumitsa (Struma) area in an easterly direction for some distance, thence in a southerly direction to the Aegean Sea, coinciding with the Mesta (Nestos) River in its lower course. Bulgaria's long vaunted claim to an outlet on the Aegean was limited to about a seventy mile strip between the Mesta and Maritsa rivers.

4. World War I

The obvious outcome of the Balkan Wars was deep bitterness and intense desire for vengeance manifest by the Balkan States. Bulgaria found its chance to retaliate in World War I, by siding with Turkey and the other Central Powers in October 1915. Confining her military operations to the Greek and Serbian frontiers, Bulgaria became the thoroughfare between the Danube and the Bosphorus for German reinforcements to Turkey. In October 1918 Bulgaria was defeated following the final Balkan drive of the Allied Armies.

The Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine, November 27, 1919, which ended Bulgaria's part in World War I, delimited the entire Bulgaria - Greece boundary as presently demarcated. As a result, Bulgaria was cut off from the Aegean. An

economic outlet in the form of transit rights through Thrace to the Aegean was ensured by the Allied and Associated Powers. The conditions of the guarantee were to be fixed at a later date. However, when the subject was raised in the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923, Bulgaria rejected the offer of transit rights at the port of Dedeagatch (Alexandroupolis) as inadequate.

E. Ethnography

Throughout history the ethnographic description of the boundary area has been exceedingly complex. Constant exposure to the tangled political rivalries, the jumbled topography, and the area's location astride ancient land routes have influenced the varied convolutions of the human landscape. Any attempt toward objectivity in describing the demographic pattern of the region requires qualification as to time, specific location, and political interest.

1. In Ancient Times

In ancient times the region was inhabited by Illyrians and Thracians. The Hellenes occupied much of the Aegean Peninsula to the south, especially the maritime locations. No doubt other Indo-European and probably some Asiatic racial elements can also be identified. The varied ethnic elements converged in the general area of Macedonia which, although ill-defined, included the boundary area and parts of the Vardar-Morava river valleys in present day Yugoslavian territory. Whatever the historical merit of whether the Macedonians were Hellenes or not, the entire boundary area was Hellenic in character in the fourth century B.C. during the reign of Alexander the Great.

The great Slavic immigrations which took place in increasing numbers from the third through the seventh centuries probably absorbed the Thraco-Illyrians. The Bulgars, although reluctant to concede that Slavs preceded them, are known to have settled south of the Danube in the seventh century. Like the Huns and the Avars who preceded them (Goths and other Teutons also preceded them) and like the Magyars and the Turks who followed them the Bulgars, classified as Turanian, Mongol, or Tatar, are of Ural-Altaic origin.

2. The Ottoman Period

Following the Ottoman Turkish crossing of the Straits in the 14th century and the conquest of the Balkans, the Ottoman social and political pattern was imprinted on the ethnographic map. During five centuries of Ottoman rule, the map included Bulgar, Greek, Turk, Serb, Macedonian, Gypsies, Vlachs, Armenians, Russians, Jews, Albanians, Circasians and others. The term "Balkanization" lends apt description to this ethnographic puzzle. Despite its complexity, however, society and politics, inseparable in Ottoman times, fitted an over-all pattern that could be described as an ethnic mosaic. This ethnic pattern is well known as the Millet (Turkish: people united by a common faith; fr. Arabic: Millah, creed) system.

While the Empire was in ascendancy, a steady migration of varied peoples from Asian lands moved into the Balkans and to the outer European boundaries of the Ottoman Empire. As the Empire declined the migrations reversed direction.

Population figures in Ottoman times vary considerably in validity and must be taken with a good measure of skepticism. However, the 1910 Census estimate for Bulgaria is as follows:

Total Population: 4,337,516

Bulgars	3,203,810	Jews	37,663
Turks	488,010	Armenians	12,270
Rumanian	75,773	Germans	3,863
Gypsies	98,004	Russians	3,275
Greeks	63,487	Others	61,690
Pomaks	26,000		

At this time the number of Turks in the Arda, Maritsa, and the Tunca valleys and in eastern Rumelia was probably about half the total population.

Under the Turkish regime in Macedonia and western Thrace, no detailed statistics of population were kept. Serbs, Bulgars, Turks, Greeks, Vlachs, Albanians, Jews, and Gypsies all inhabited the area. An approximate estimate of the population about 1910 in the Macedonia area near the Vardar and the Mesta rivers is as follows:

Total Population: 1,140,000

Greeks	250,000	
Turks	250,000	
Slavs	380,000	(includes Serbs and Bulgars)
Vlachs	150,000	
Jews	110,000	

The population in Western Thrace between the Mesta and the Maritsa (Evros) rivers may have been about 150,000 including 60,000 Greeks, 60,000 Turks, and 30,000 Bulgars.

3. The Present Scene

Two Balkan Wars (1912-1913), World War I, and the Greek-Turkish War (1919-1922) caused severe upheavals of population in the boundary area. This shifting across Balkan boundaries of varied ethnic groups all but erased the demographic pattern of Ottoman times. The scope of the migrations due to years of almost continuous conflict can be seen by citing some estimates. Probably about 200,000 Bulgars, Greeks, Turks, and others crossed international boundaries during the First Balkan War (1912-1913). With Bulgaria and Greece as Allies, thousands of Bulgars, Greeks, and other Turkish subjects were forced out of Turkish Thrace westward into Bulgarian, Greek, and Serbian held territories. Conversely, Turks, Pomaks (Turkified Muslims of Bulgar extraction), and other Muslims were forced out of Bulgaria, Serbian Macedonia, and Greece into Turkey. In the Second Balkan War (1913), with Bulgaria fighting against Greece and her former Balkan Allies, the movements again changed direction. This time Bulgars and Pomaks fled northward from Serbian and Greek Macedonia into Bulgaria; while Greeks, Serbs, and others migrated southward.

The migrations continued during World War I with Bulgaria siding with Germany and Turkey. Finally, a Convention concerning Reciprocal Emigration between Bulgaria and Greece in conjunction with the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine, signed November 27, 1919, provided for the voluntary emigration of respective minorities. According to the figures of the Mixed Commission, 53,000 Bulgarians, in addition to 39,000 who left Greece earlier, availed themselves of the agreement. The number of Greeks leaving Bulgaria after World War I was listed as 46,000, amounting to practically the entire Greek minority at the time.

A more striking change in ethnic complexion took place as a result of the Greek-Turkish War (1919-1922) following Turkey's signing of the World War I armistice in 1918.⁴ The defeat of the Greek armies in Anatolia and the consequent expulsion of thousands of Greeks from the Smyrna (Izmir) area led to an agreement to exchange population between Greece and the new Turkish Republic. Smyrna was said to have had a Greek population of 375,000; Athens then had a population of 168,000.

The population exchange, one of the most remarkable of its kind, was embodied as a Convention and included in the Treaty of Lausanne of 1923. Upwards of one million Greek refugees left Turkey, about 400,000 Turkish refugees left Greece. Most of the Greeks were settled in the Macedonian and Thracian areas acquired as a result of the Balkan Wars. Thus in addition to the population explosion, Greece homogenized the Bulgarian boundary area, which in effect "settled" the "Macedonian Question" for Greece by eliminating what was formerly a heterogeneous population.

The total population of Greece as of the census estimate of 1963 is 8,548,000. The estimate for Western Thrace totals 356,555 as of the 1960 census. The latter figure includes about 95,000 Muslims, of whom Turks number about 65,000 and Pomaks about 25,000.

The population of the First Order administrative districts (Nomos) bordering the Bulgarian boundary as of the 1951 census is as follows:

<u>Nomos</u>	
Serrai	221,100
Drama	119,100
Xanthi	89,800
Rhodopi	104,800
Evros	<u>141,100</u>
Total	675,900

In Bulgaria, the population of the 1956 census estimate was:

Total Population: 7,613,709			
Bulgars	6,506,541	Russians	10,551
Turks	662,018	Greeks	7,500
Gypsies	197,865	Jews	6,029
Macedonians	187,789	Others	13,406
Armenians	22,000		

The population as of 1963 of the four First Order administrative districts (Okrug) bordering the Greek boundary is as follows:

<u>Okrug</u>	
Blagoevgrad	304,700
Smolyan	151,400
Kurdzhali	281,900
Khaskovc	<u>296,200</u>
Total	1,034,200

The total population for all Bulgaria as of December 1963 given in the Bulgarian Yearbook is 8,111,100. A breakdown of population according to minorities is unavailable.

⁴ Op. cit., IBS No. 41, Greece - Turkey Boundary.

III. ANALYSIS OF BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The Bulgaria - Greece Boundary was last defined by the Treaty of Peace between the Allied and Associated Powers and Bulgaria, signed at Neuilly-sur-Seine on November 27, 1919. With the exception of the fixing of the tripoint with Turkey, the boundary is as demarcated in 1921 by La Commission de Délimitation de la Frontière Gréco-Bulgare in accordance with the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine. The entire boundary is essentially that formed by the Treaty of Bucharest, August 10, 1913, eastward to point 1587 (Dibikli)⁵ and again eastward along a newly drawn line to point 1295 on the Bulgarian-Turkish boundary of 1913 (Treaty of Constantinople) four kilometers north of Kuchuk Derbend⁶ where the boundary enters the Daoul stream; thence northward along the 1913 boundary to the Maritsa (Evros) River. The boundary then follows the principal course of the Maritsa downstream a distance of 9.5 miles to the Turkish tripoint prescribed in the Treaty of Lausanne of 1923, and finally fixed in the Maritsa River by a demarcation commission in 1926.

A Protocol annexed to Article V of the Treaty of Bucharest defined the boundary between Bulgaria and Greece as follows:

The frontier line begins on the ridge of Belasica Planina at the Bulgaro-Servian frontier; follows that ridge, then descends the ridge which is situated north of Iürükleri and extends to the confluence of the Struma and the Bistrica, runs up the Bistrica, then in an easterly direction to Cengane Kalesi (1500). Thence it extends to the crest of Ali Butus (No. 1650) and follows the dividing line of the waters, Nos. 1820, 1800, 713 and Stragac. Thence, continuing along the dividing line of the waters, it takes an easterly and then a north-easterly direction, following the dividing line of the waters between Nos. 715 and 660 and extending to Nos. 1150 and 1152, whence it follows the ridge east of the village of Rakisten, crosses the Mesta, runs toward the summit of Rusa and Zeleza, crosses the Despat (Rana) Suju and extends to Cuka. From this point it again follows the dividing line of the waters, passing through Sibkova, Cadirkaya (1750), Avlika Dag (1517), Kajin Cal (1811), Debikli (1587), ...

The distance from the tripoint with Yugoslavia at Tumba mountain (marker #1) to marker #233 (point 1587) on Debikli⁷ mountain, along the 1913 line is 96.5 miles (155.7 kms).

The newly drawn line following the water divide "between the basin of the Maritsa on the north and the basins of the Mesta Karasu and the other rivers which flow directly into the Aegean Sea on the south; thence eastward to a point on the frontier of 1913 between Bulgaria and Turkey about 4 kilometers north of Kuchuk-Derbend,⁸ ... following the crest line forming the southern limit of the basin of the Akcehisar (Dzuma) Suju," is 153 miles (246.3 kms) in length. The Demarcation Commission of 1921 defined this portion of the boundary in two sectors, B1 and B2.

⁵ As shown on "Treaty Map."

⁶ As on "Treaty Map"; now known as Mikron Dherion.

⁷ On "Treaty Map."

⁸ Mikron Dherion.

Sector B1 comprises 171 intervisible boundary pillars numbered consecutively from east to west following a distance of 87 miles (140 kms) from marker #1, located at altitude 1054 meters, about 2000 meters west of the summit of Kartal Dag (Gr: Papikion Oros) to the junction with the old 1913 Bulgaria - Greece boundary at Dibikli. Sector B2 consists of 182 intervisible markers, commencing from the same point (#1, Kartal Dag) and following from west to east a distance of 66 miles (106.3 kms) to the Daoul stream.⁹

The boundary thence follows northward along the old 1913 Bulgaria - Turkey boundary to the Maritsa River, partly on land and partly on water a distance of 47.5 miles (76.7 kms). This segment of the boundary is demarcated by 187 boundary markers numbered from 320 to 321A fixed on both banks of the Maritsa, following southward to markers numbered 506, 507, and 508 located at the confluence of the Kizil Deli Dere (Stream) with the Daoul Dere (Stream) at which point the 1913 boundary joins the 1919 boundary on the Daoul Dere.

The Treaty of Constantinople between Bulgaria and Turkey, September 29, 1913 defined the boundary from the Maritsa southward to the new 1919 (Treaty of Neuilly) Bulgaria - Greece boundary as follows:

... from there (the Maritsa) arrives in a straight line at Cermen-Déré, north of the railway bridge (Cermen-Déré is the stream which flows into the Maritsa three kilometers east of the village Cermen) and then, passing around Cermen on the north, goes to Tazi-Tépézi. The frontier leaves Cermen to Turkey and, following the course of Cermen-Déré, crosses the railway line northwest of Cermen; it still follows the same stream and rises to Tazi-Tépési (hill 613). (The point where Cermen-Déré crosses the railway line, northwest of Cermen, is five kilometers away from the center of the village Cermen and three thousand two hundred meters from the western end of the Mustafa-Pacha bridge.)

The frontier leaves the highest point of Tazi-Tépési in Ottoman territory, and starting from this point follows the line of separation of the waters of the Arda and of the Maritsa, passing near the villages Yayladjik and Gjuldjuk (Goldzik), which rest in Ottoman territory.

Starting from Goldzik the frontier passes over hill 449 and then to hill 367, and, from this hill, goes southward in almost a straight line towards the Arda. This straight line passes one kilometer west of Kektachli, which remains in Ottoman territory.

The frontier line, after reaching the Arda from hill 367, follows the right bank of the Arda and comes to the mill which is one kilometer south of the village of Tchingirli from this mill it follows the line of the watershed east of Gadjohor-Déré; it passes one kilometer east of the village Gadjohor and, leaving the village of Drébisna to Bulgaria and passing about one kilometer east of this village, descends to Atéren-Déré one kilometer south of this village; thence it goes in a southwesterly direction, by the shortest route, to the source of the stream which flows between the villages Akalan and Kajliklikeuy and follows the thalweg of this waterway down to the river Kizil-Déli.

Starting from this stream the frontier, leaving Gotch-Bounar in Bulgaria, follows the course of the Kizil-Déli-Déré and thence, following the thalweg of the stream which branches off towards the south¹⁰

⁹ Unnamed in the Treaty of Constantinople.

¹⁰ The Daoul Dere (stream)

IV. TREATIES AND OTHER ACTS

The following treaties and other acts pertain directly to the present Bulgaria - Greece boundary:

- A. Treaty of Peace Between Bulgaria and Roumania, Greece, Montenegro and Servia, signed at Bucharest July 28/August 10, 1913.

Protocol annexed to Article V of the Treaty of Bucharest, defined the frontier between Bulgaria and Greece.

The Treaty of Bucharest ended the Second Balkan War between Bulgaria and her former Allies of the First Balkan War.

- B. Treaty of Peace Between Bulgaria and Turkey, signed at Constantinople September 16/29, 1913.

Article I defines the Bulgaria-Turkey frontier including that part of the boundary which became the Bulgaria-Greece boundary in accordance with the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine, 1919.

The Treaty of Constantinople ended the Second Balkan War between Bulgaria and Turkey.

- C. Treaty of Peace Between the Allied and Associated Powers and Bulgaria, signed at Neuilly-sur-Seine, November 27, 1919.

Article 27, defines the frontiers of Bulgaria.

Article 28, prescribed the 1:1,000,000 map to be attached to the

Treaty, as the official "Treaty Map" and specified its limitations.

Article 29, defines the composition and the responsibilities of the Boundary Commission.

This Treaty defined the Bulgarian - Greece boundary according to the Treaty of Bucharest, 1913, and along a newly drawn line subsequently attributed by the Allied and Associated Powers to Greece, thence along the 1913 line, Treaty of Constantinople, to a point along the Maritsa River.

- D. The 1:1,000,000 scale map "Bulgarie".

The official "Treaty Map" as annexed to the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine.

- E. La Commission de Délimitation de la Frontière Gréco-Bulgare, Sofia, 1922.

This commission established according to the Treaty of Neuilly delimited and demarcated the entire Bulgaria - Greece boundary in 1921.

- F. Treaty of Lausanne between Turkey and various Allied Powers, signed at Lausanne, July 24, 1923.

The Treaty of Lausanne defined the tripoint with Turkey which finally was fixed on the Maritsa River by the Greece-Turkey demarcation commission in 1926.

- G. Treaty of Paris, February 10, 1947.

This treaty confirmed all Bulgarian frontiers "which existed on 1 January 1941."

V. SUMMARY

The Bulgaria - Greece boundary is 307 miles (494 kms) in length, comprises 257 miles (414 kms) on land and 49 miles (80 kms) on water. The entire boundary is demarcated; 674 intervisible boundary pillars are erected on the segments on land. The Treaty of Paris, February 10, 1947, confirmed all Bulgarian frontiers "which existed on 1 January 1941." There are no active disputes regarding the specific alignment of the boundary.

Shortly after World War II communist guerrilla warfare in Greece resulted in considerable boundary violation and other excess. In December 1953, a Greek-Bulgarian Frontier Commission awarded a group of disputed islets in the middle of the Maritsa (Evros) river to Greece. Recently, a joint communique issued on September 29, 1964, following the termination of an official visit of the Greek Foreign Minister to Sofia cited a statement by the Bulgarian Premier that "all territorial claims are excluded forever." It would seem, therefore, that boundary friction which has persisted so much in the past, if not "excluded forever," is eliminated for the present.

Location of the boundary markers are shown on Sheets 1A - 7A, 1B1 - 8B1, 1B2 - 6B2, and 14 C - 19 C of La Commission de Délimitation de la Frontière Gréco-Bulgare, 1:25,000, prepared by the official Boundary Commission of 1921. For a large scale depiction of the boundary, this series is recommended. A reasonably accurate representation of the boundary is found on Army Map Service 1:250,000 scale (Series M-501) Sheets NK 34-9, NK 35-7, and (Series K 502) Sheet NK 35-8. A small-scale depiction of the boundary is found on Army Map Service 1:1,000,000 scale (Series 1301) Sheet NK 34 and Sheet NK 35 which also includes the Bulgaria-Turkey and Greece-Turkey boundaries.

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International Boundary Study

NO. 57 - NOVEMBER 15, 1965

MALAYSIA - THAILAND BOUNDARY



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INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY STUDY

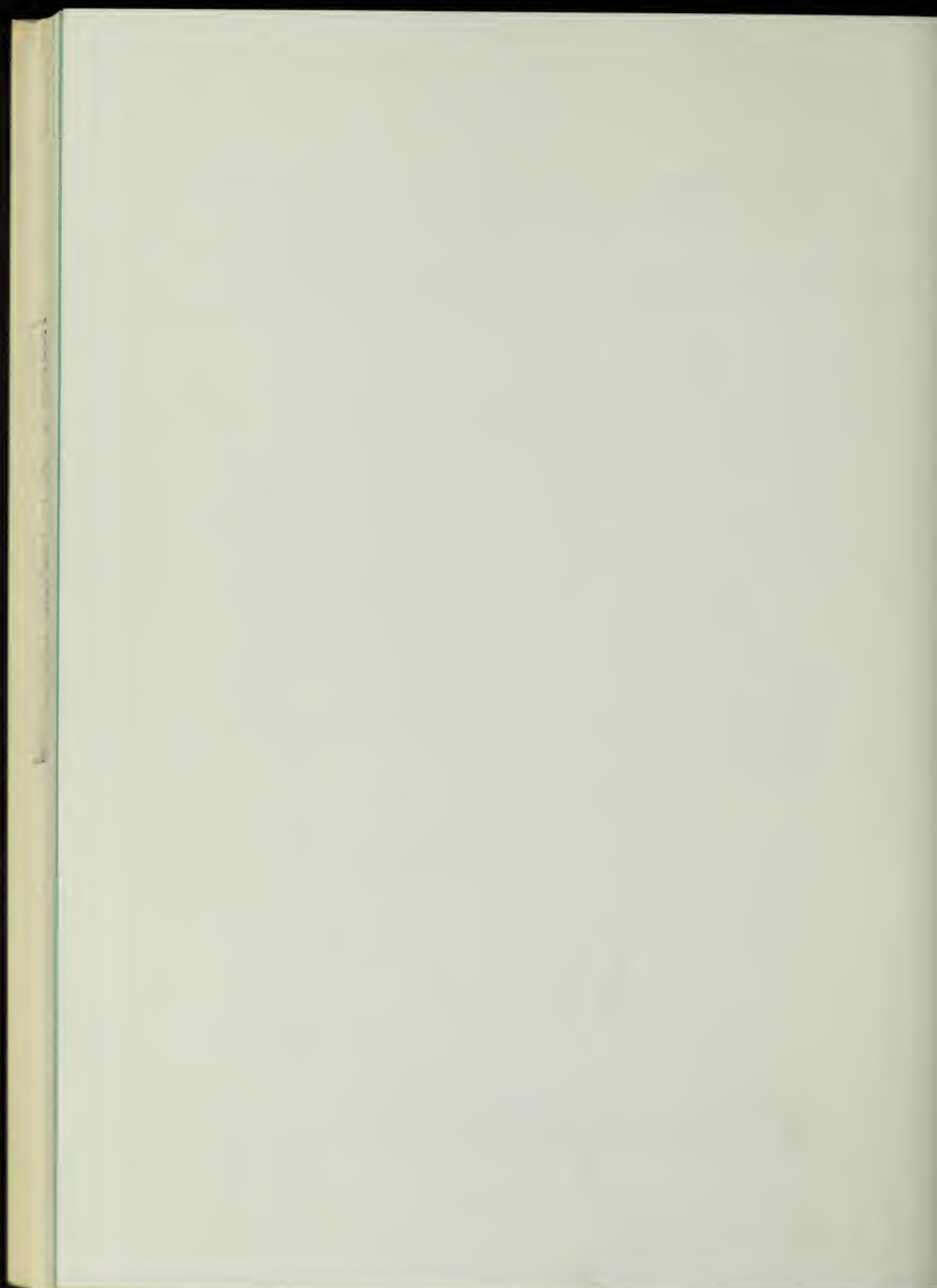
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Malaysia - Thailand Boundary

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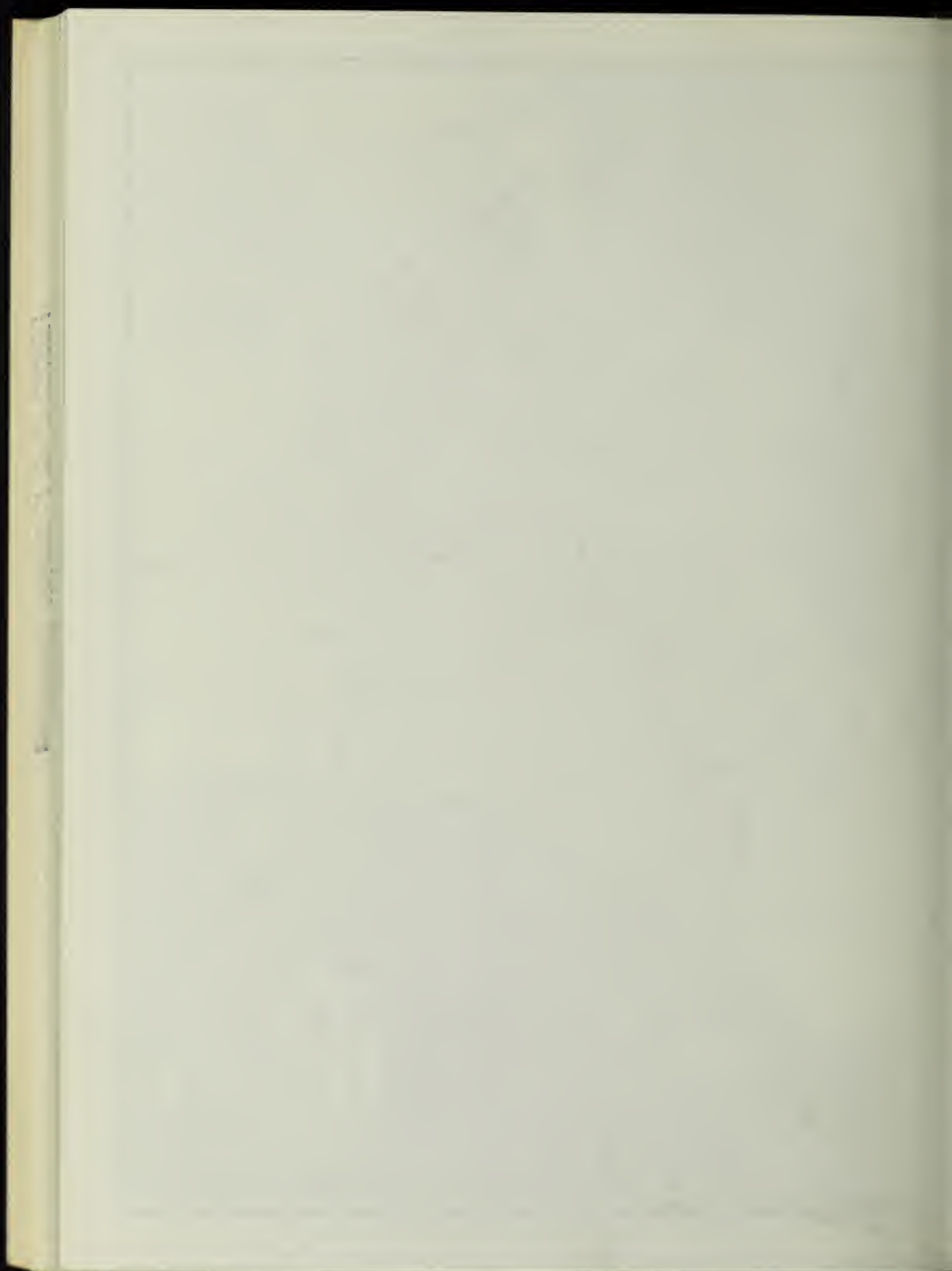
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The Malaysia-Thailand boundary extends for 314 miles from the Strait of Malacca on the west to the Gulf of Siam on the east. The demarcated boundary follows water divides in the west and center and the Golok river in the east. No active disputes over the precise alignment are known to exist.



MALAYSIA - THAILAND BOUNDARY

I. BOUNDARY BRIEF

The Malaysia - Thailand boundary extends for 314 miles from the Strait of Malacca on the west to the Gulf of Siam on the east. The demarcated boundary follows water divides in the west and center and the Golok river in the east.

No active disputes over the precise alignment are known to exist.

II. GEOGRAPHICAL BACKGROUND

A. Physical

In the west, the boundary originates in a low, undulating coastal plain, an area of dense mangrove swamps. The plain is constricted in the immediate area of the boundary but broadens both to the north and to the south of the boundary, penetrating 15 to 20 miles inland. Isolated hills appear in Malaysia and more continuous ridges and ranges of hills lie to the north in Thailand. These attain local elevations of almost 4,000 feet but the crests of the hills normally average about 1,000 feet above sea level.

The Sayun Range, an extension of the Si Thammarat mountains of Thailand, forms the frontier region for approximately 15 miles on its northward extension from the coastal plain. The limestone range is narrow, varying from slightly more than two miles to over seven miles in width, and has an average elevation of approximately 2,000 feet. Many small tributary streams have dissected the range into jagged, steep-sided hills. Elevations fall sharply eastward to the Lam Yai valley. This lowland area extends for approximately 20 miles eastward to the Central Highlands, the main spine of the Malay Peninsula. The valley is the principal routeway from southern Thailand to Perlis State and is served by both a main highway and a railroad. The valley floor is gently undulating and broken by a few low, isolated hills.

The Central Highlands, which comprise the middle half of the frontier region, consist of a massive but dissected granitic upland. The general alignment of the ridges is north-south with maximum elevations between 3,000 and 5,000 feet situated along the boundary. Slopes are steep and are, in general, covered with a thick, evergreen, tropical rain forest. However, above the 4,000 foot line a deciduous type of forest, comprised primarily of oak, predominates. The larger valleys have been cleared in places for cultivation but the major part of the frontier remains in natural forest.

The eastern coastal plain mirrors the forms and relief encountered in the west. The region is a flat, sandy lowland with swamp and mangrove forests along the coast. The shallow Golok River has a low gradient and the stream meanders across the plain. Generally elevations are below 250 feet but occasional hills dot the landscape. The coastal plain offers excellent access between Malaysia and Thailand and a main highway and a railroad cross the frontier.

The tropical monsoon climate of the frontier is directly influenced by both the southwest (May-September) and the northeast (November-March) monsoons. The Central Highland spine and the trend of the peninsula tend

to restrict the southwest monsoonal influence to the west and the northeast to the east. Precipitation maximums occur during the monsoonal season but no period is without rainfall. Total annual precipitation is everywhere in excess of 80 inches.

As a tropical region, temperatures are uniformly high throughout the year. Mean daily maximum temperatures range between 84° and 91° while the minima are between 74° and 76°. Seasonal variations are very slight.

B. Historical

The early history of Thai - Malay contacts is obscure. However, the first Thai kingdom known to history was Nan-Chao, located near what is now Yunnan, in south China. Nan-Chao resisted the southward thrust of successive Chinese dynasties from roughly the 7th through the 12th centuries. However, the Mongol conquest of China in the 13th century shattered the Yunnan-based kingdom and speeded the southward movement of the Thai, a process which had been gradually developing for several centuries. Minor Thai kingdoms appeared in what is now northern Thailand in the 11th century. In the 13th century, however, the cohesive Kingdom of Sukothai, although it was centered on the north, laid claim to most of modern-day Thailand. Channeled between the Khmer in the east and the Burmese in the west, the Thai gradually spread southward to come into direct contact with the Malays of the lower peninsula.

After a devastating defeat by the Burmese in the 18th century, a new Thai state was reconstituted on the lower reaches of the Chao Phraya river. The present capital, Bangkok, was established in 1782 by the first king of the current Thai dynasty. His major tasks were to recreate the basic institutions of the society--laws, records, codes, traditions, temples, etc.--and to regain control over the former vassal states which now exercised a great deal of local independence. Between 1824 and 1851, the Malay sultanates of Trengganu, Kedah, Kelantan, and Pattani were brought under closer relationship with Bangkok.

The first major contact with Europeans in the region occurred in 1511 when Malacca fell to the Portuguese. During the 16th century, Dutch influences developed in Java and Spanish in the Philippines. In 1819, Britain annexed the island of Singapore as a port of call between India and China. Five years later, the Dutch exchanged Malacca, which they had previously taken from Portugal, for the British posts in Sumatra. From this base on the Malay peninsula, British protection was extended successively over the sultanates of Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and finally, in 1888, over Pahang. The island of Penang and an adjacent coastal strip had been obtained almost a century earlier.

Thus, the Thai kingdom and the British Malay states came into direct territorial contact; the first boundary treaty was signed in 1869 concerning the frontier of Kedah. In the first decade of the 20th century, Siam relinquished its suzerain claim to the four Malay sultanates of Kedah, Trengganu, Perlis, and Kelantan to British protection within the Malay states. The present-day boundary stems from this treaty of 1909 between Britain and Siam. During World War II, Thailand temporarily regained control over the four states but they reverted to British administration with the end of the hostilities. In 1957, they became states of the independent Federation of Malaya (Malaysia in 1963).

C. Political

In the decades since the end of World War II, the frontier region between Malaysia and Thailand has been plagued by communist inspired insurgency. In 1959 and again in 1965 agreements were signed by the states to assist in the control of the frontier area. However, these treaties did not affect the location of the boundary.

III. ANALYSIS OF THE BOUNDARY ALIGNMENT

The treaty of 1909 delimited the boundary as follows:

"Commencing from the most seaward point of the northern bank of the estuary of the Perlis River and thence north to the range of hills which is the watershed between the Perlis River on one side and the Pujok River on the other; then following the watershed formed by the said range of hills until it reaches the main watershed or dividing line between those rivers which flow into the Gulf of Siam on the one side and into the Indian Ocean or the other; following this main watershed so as to pass the sources of the Sungei Patani (S. Pattani), Sungei Telubin (Khlong Sai Buri), and Sungei Perak, to the point which is the source of the Sungei Pergau; then leaving the main watershed and going along the watershed separating the waters of the Sungei Pergau from the Sungei Telubin, to the hill called Bukit Jeli (Buket Yeli) or the source of the main stream of the Sungei Golok to the sea at a place called Kuala Tabar.

"This line will leave the valleys of the Sungei Patani, Sungei Telubin, and Sungei Tanjung Mas (Tanjong Mat) and the valley on the left or west bank of the Golok to Siam and the whole valley of the Perak River and the valley on the right or east bank of the Golok to Great Britain."

The delimitation continued by allotting the west coast islands as follows:

"The island known as Pule Langkawi, together with all the islets south of the mid-channel between Terutau and Langkawi, and all the islands south of Langkawi shall become British. Terutau and the islets to the north of mid-channel shall remain to Siam.

"With regard to the islands close to the west coast, those lying to the north of the parallel of latitude where the most seaward point of the north bank of the estuary of the Perlis River touches the sea shall remain to Siam, and those lying to the south of the parallel shall become British."

The division of islands on the east coast of the peninsula was as follows:

"All islands adjacent to the eastern States of Kelantan and Tringganu (sic), south of the parallel of latitude drawn from the point where the Sungei Golok reaches the coast at a place called Kuala Tabar, shall be transferred to Great Britain, and all islands to the north of that parallel shall remain to Siam."

The treaty then stated:

"It shall be the duty of the Boundary Commission ... to determine and eventually to mark out the frontier above described."

IV. INTERNATIONAL TREATIES

The following treaties have been negotiated on the Malaysia - Thailand boundary alignment. Only the 1909 agreement specifically concerns the modern boundary alignment.

- A. Bangkok Treaty signed on May 6, 1869 (no ratification required) (Great Britain, Foreign Office, British and Foreign State Papers, vol. 59, p. 1147 ff., London.)

The treaty delimited the coastal portion of Penang ceded to Great Britain as the Province Wellesley.

- B. Bangkok Treaty signed on March 10, 1909 with ratifications exchanged in London on July 9, 1909. (Great Britain, Foreign Office, Treaty Series 1909, No. 19, Command 4703, London.)

The treaty formally ceded the four southern Malay states under Siamese suzerainty to the protection of Great Britain. The treaty included four annexes (two protocols), the first of which, delimited the entire boundary. (See quote above in Section III.)

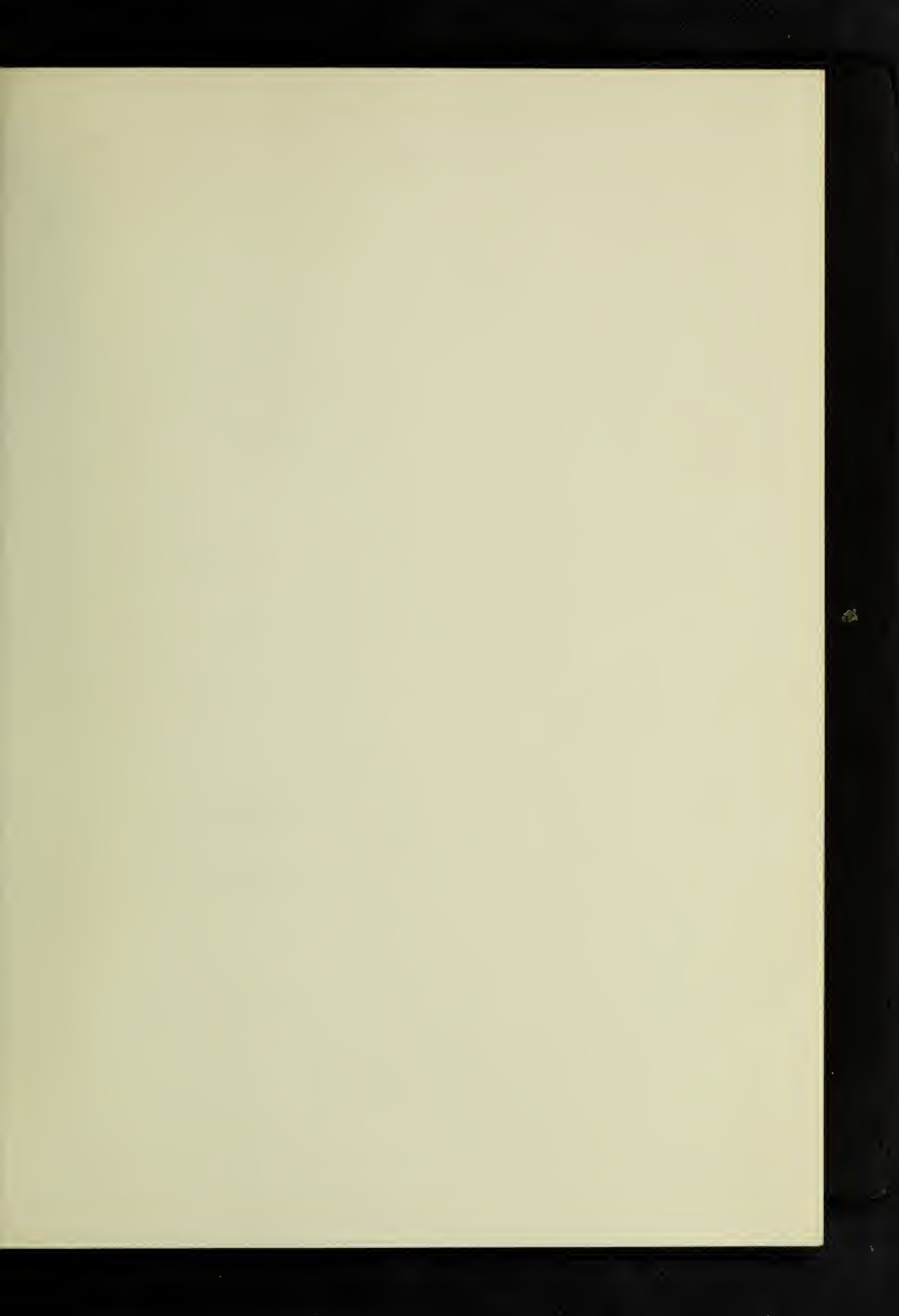
- C. London Treaty signed on July 14, 1925 with ratifications exchanged in London on March 30, 1926. (Aitchison, C. U., A Collection of Treaties, Engagements, and Sanads ..., 5th ed., Calcutta, Government of India, Vol. 14, p. 194 ff.)

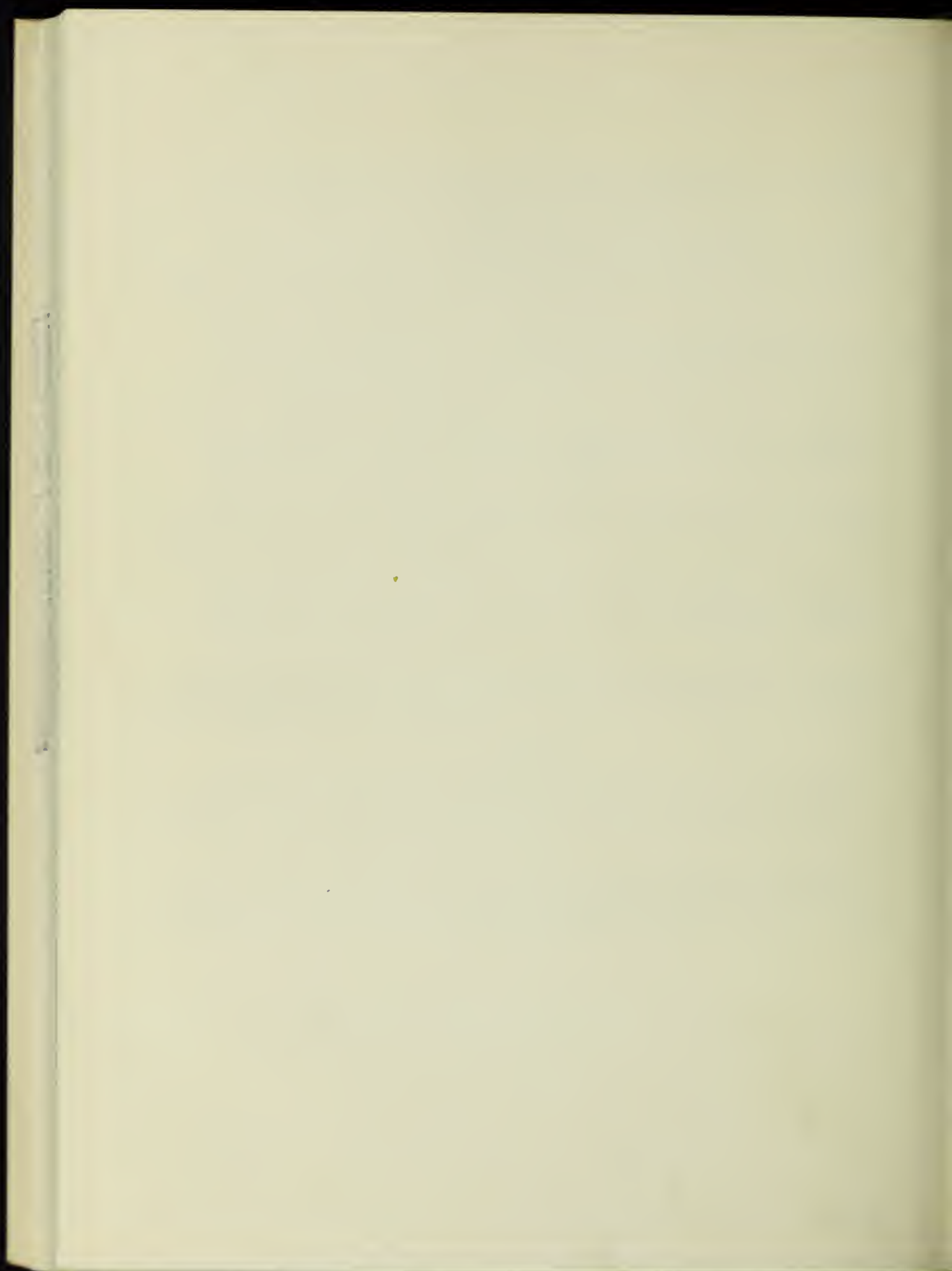
Article 5 stated that "any treaty in force at the time of the signature of the present treaty, which fix or delimit the boundary between Siam and British possessions or protectorates shall remain in force." The alignment of the boundary was not discussed.

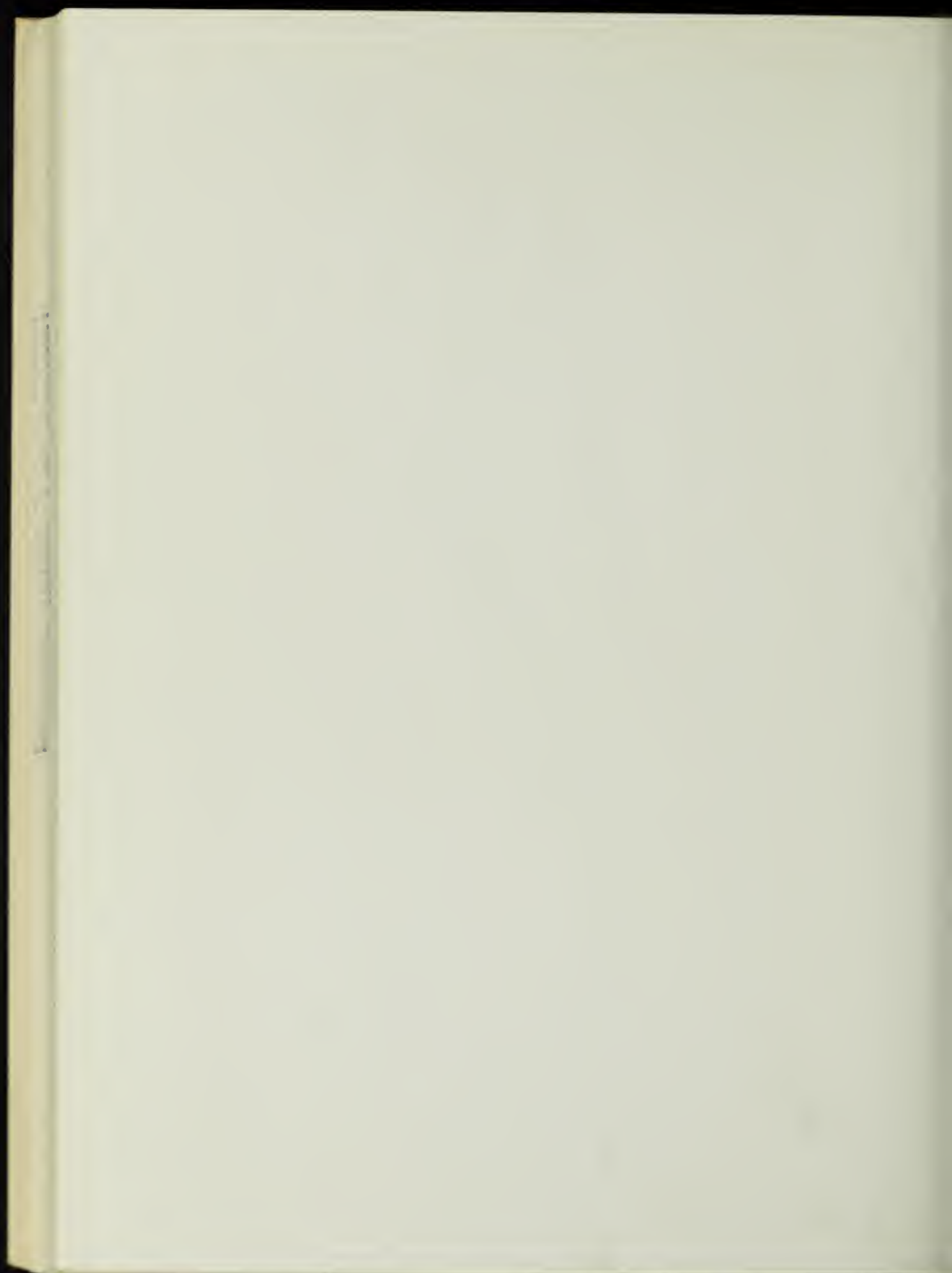
V. SUMMARY

The Malaysia - Thailand boundary is 314 miles long. For 251 miles, the boundary is formed by water divides in the west and central sectors. The Golok river forms the border for an additional 59 miles, with the remaining 4 miles in the coastal waters.

The boundary representation on Malaysian, Thai, and British published maps is identical and they may all serve as compilation sources for the alignment. The two-sheet map, Malaya, 1:500,000, published by the Survey Department of Malaya and the British quarter-inch series, reprinted as Army Map Service series L 501, are both judged good sources.



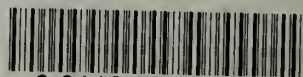








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